GAZETTEER OF INDIA

MYSORE STATE

CHITRADURGA DISTRICT

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BY

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PREFACE

SHORTLY after the fall of Srirangapatna in 1799, the Governor-General of India, with a view to collecting information on the geographical, social, political and economic aspects of the territories that came under British authority, appointed Col. Mackenzie to undertake a survey of the area and submit a report. In 1800, Col. Mackenzie submitted his report. The subsequent part of the work was carried on by Dr. Leyden, who was asked to assess the natural history of the country under various heads like minerology, flora and fauna, climatology, agriculture, industries and the like. In July 1802, Col. Mackenzie again submitted a report, which among other details, included information about the situation, extent, boundaries and contents of the region. In the meanwhile, Dr. Francis Buchanan-Hamilton, under the orders of the Marquis of Wellesley, undertook a journey from Madras, through Mysore, Kanara and Malabar and his travel diary was published in three volumes under the title "A Journey from Madras through the countries of Mysore, Kanara and Malabar". Later, Dr. Benjamin Heyne compiled a survey report titled "Tracts, Historical and Statistical, on India" and the portion relating to Mysore State in that publication was published by the British Commission in 1864 under the authority of the Government of India.

A memorandum in the shape of notes was prepared in 1834 by the British Commission on the social and economic aspects of Mysore State for submission to the Governor-General. The note gave an account of the state of affairs under the six principal administrative divisions of which Chitradurga was one. It is generally presumed that Sir Mark Cubbon, the Chief Commissioner, was the author of this important sketch. This was followed by a report of the Chitradurga area prepared in 1842 by Capt. F. Chalmers, who was the Superintendent of Chitradurga division. Though these were called reports, they were, in fact, gazetteers since they were comprehensive in their content. Col. Wilks is to be remembered in this connection since he wrote an exhaustive account of the state of affairs at that time.

The earliest attempt to bring out a Gazetteer in Mysore State was made in June 1867, when Mr. C. B. Saunders, the officiating Chief Commissioner, wrote to the Superintendents of Divisions, directing them to compile a gazetteer for each district. Though nine manuscript volumes were prepared in the next two years, only two relating to the districts of Mysore and Kolar were published.

With the sanction of the Government of India, Mr. B. Lewis Rice, who was the Director of Archæological Researches and the Director of Public Instruction in Mysore and Coorg, was entrusted in 1873 with the work of compilation of the gazetteers of Mysore and Coorg. He prepared three volumes, the first of Mysore State in general, the second of Mysore by districts and the third devoted entirely to Coorg. The first two were published in 1876 and the third in 1878. The first two volumes relating to the State of Mysore were again revised and re-written by Mr. Rice twenty years later and published in 1897. Another publication containing articles drafted by him from notes received on various technical subjects from the departments concerned was published in 1908 in a volume entitled "Provincial Gazetteers of India—Mysore State" in which a section was devoted to Chitradurga. During the dewanship of Dr. M. Visvesvaraya, Economic Superintendents were appointed for all districts and these officers were asked, among other things, to prepare a statistical account for their respective districts. In 1916, the Chitradurga Hand-Book was published.

The second edition of the Mysore Gazetteer issued by Mr. Lewis Rice having been out of print, Sri R. Narasimhachar, Director of Archæological Researches in Mysore, was appointed in July 1914 as compiler of the new edition. In 1924, the work of compiling the Mysore Gazetteer was entrusted to Sri C. Hayavadana Rao, who brought out a publication in five volumes between the years 1927 and 1930.

The old gazetteers were intended mainly to give statistical and other information to the foreign administrators about the district and th people. After 1947. this outlook has undergone a change and the gazetteers are now focussing their attention more on the culture of the people of India and the country's contribution towards human civilisation. They also pinpoint the progress achieved and the benefits that have accrued to the people as the result of the several development plans.

An Advisory Board consisting of the Chief Secretary to the Government of Mysore as the Chairman and Dr. D. C. Pavate, M.A. (Cantab), Sri V. L. D'Souza, B.A., B.com. (Lond.), Sri P. H. Krishna Rao, M.A., Prof. K. A. Nilakanta Sastri, M.A., and Dr. S. C. Nandimath, M.A., Ph.D. (Lond.), as Members was constituted to scrutinise the chapters compiled by me and to guide me in the work. The Central Gazetteers Unit, New Delhi, has also thoroughly scrutinised the various chapters and made useful suggestions with a view to improving the standard of this volume.

The Gazetteer of Chitradurga is the fourth to be published in the series of District Gazetteers of Mysore State. Its chapter

headings and contents are in accordance with a uniform pattern agreed upon between the Central Gazetteers Unit and the States. The available Census data of 1961 have been given and in a few cases, the figures of the 1951 Census had to be depended upon. Every attempt has been made to include the latest figures, as far as possible. I have received co-operation and assistance from various sources and I offer my thanks to the Chairman and members of the State Advisory Board, the Indian Meteorological Department, the Survey of India, the Director of Printing, Stationery and Publications in Mysore, and the various other departments of the State Government.

I have also to express my thanks to Sriyuths: A. Ramakrishnan, Administrative Officer, P. B. Srinivasan, K. Abhishankar, M. A. Narasimha Iyengar and K. C. Bheemaiah, Editors, and Abdul Wadood and K. L. Anantha Raman, Stenographers, and other members of my staff who assisted me in the compilation and printing of this gazetteer.

My thanks are also due to Dr. P. N. Chopra, M.A., Ph.D., Editor, District Gazetteers, and the members of the staff of the Central Gazetteers Unit, Ministry of Education, New Delhi, for their assistance in planning and co-ordinating the work of preparation of the District Gazetteers. The Unit scrutinised the draft of this volume with great care and made several helpful suggestions with a view to improving the standard and quality of the publication. It may also be mentioned here that a portion of the expenditure incurred on the compilation and printing of the District Gazetteers is being met by the Government of India.

BANGALORE,
2nd January 1967.

B. N. SRI SATHYAN,
Chief Editor.

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CHITRADURGA DISTRICT

CHAPTER I

GENERAL

Origin of name

CHITRADURGA is the name of the headquarters town and the district is also called by the same name. The district was till recently called by its anglicised form 'Chitaldrug'. 'Chitradurga' is supposed to have come from Sitala or Chitrakaldurga, translated as 'spotted or picturesque castle' (Mysore Gazetteer, 1930, Vol. V, p. 1425). It has also been held that the name of the place was 'Chatrakaldurga', the word 'Chatrakal' meaning umbrella rock, being derived from 'a striking lofty hill of this form' in the south-western part of the town. But this name, be it 'Chitrakal' or 'Chatrakal', seems to have been of recent origin; we do not come across the name in the local inscriptions earlier than the 18th or the 17th century A.D. But it is well known that the place has a hoary past, reaching back to the pre-historic times. It must have had an earlier name. In the inscriptions dating from the 6th to the 17th centuries A.D., we come across such names as 'Sulgal' or 'Sulungal' and 'Bemmattanakallu', 'Bemmattanuru' or 'Bemmatturu'. Of these two, Sulgal is decidedly earlier, occurring in the lithic records from the 6th to the 11th centuries A.D. Now, in old Kannada, 'Sul' or 'Sulavu' means a curve, curl, winding movement, etc. It also means a 'carving' or a 'figure'. It, thus, appears that 'Chitrakal' came from 'Sulgal', 'Chitra' being the Sanskrit word for 'figure' or 'drawing'. From Chitrakal, next followed 'Chitrakal-durga' and the short form 'Chitradurga' (*See* also Chapter XIX).

Location

Taking its extreme limits, it is situated between 13° 34′ and 15° 02′ north latitude and 75° 37′ and 77° 01′ east longitude. But except for a narrow projection northwards, which constitutes the taluk of Molakalmuru, the main part of the district does not extend beyond 14° 40′ north latitude. Its greatest length from north to south is about 85 miles and the greatest breadth from east to west is about 100 miles. The long arm extending northwards is about 32 miles in length and about six to 12 miles in width.

General Boundaries

Prior to the integration of Bellary district with Mysore at the time of the formation of Andhra State in 1953 and the integration of the districts of Raichur, Gulbarga and Bidar from the former Hyderabad State and the districts of Dharwar, Bijapur, North Kanara and Belgaum from the former Bombay State in 1956 as the result of the States' Re-organisation, Chitradurga was the northern-most district in the old Mysore State. But now it occupies almost a central position.

The district is bounded on the north by Bellary district and on the east by Anantapur district of Andhra Pradesh. On the south-east and south-west, it is bordered by the districts of Tumkur and Chikmagalur. On the west and north-west, the districts of Shimoga and Dharwar form the boundaries.

Area and Population

Chitradurga district has an area of 4,170.9* square miles or 10,802.6 square kilometres and in size it ranks seventh among the districts of Mysore State. The population of the district according to the 1961 Census was 1,094,284 and it ranked eleventh. In density also, with a population of 101 per square kilometre (262 per square mile), it ranked eleventh** and was below the State average which was 123 per square kilometre (319 per square mile).

Administrative Changes

During the reign of His Highness Sri Krishnaraja Wodeyar III, Mysore consisted of the following six Faujdaris, sub-divided into 101 taluks.

Faujdari	*Taluks*
(1) Bangalore ..	27
(2) Maddagiri (now Madhugiri) ..	
(3) Chitaldrug ..	13
(4) Ashtagram ..	25
(5) Manjarabad ..	11
(6) Nagar ..	25

In 1834, these six Faujdaris were reconstituted into the four Divisions of Bangalore, Nagar, Chitaldrug and Ashtagram, Madhugiri being absorbed into Chitaldrug and Manjarabad into Ashtagram. The Chitaldrug district along with Tumkur district from the former Maddagiri Faujdari formed the Chitaldrug division with headquarters at Tumkur. Each division was placed under a European Superintendent with revenue and judicial powers.

Mr. Bowring, who was appointed as Commissioner in 1862, divided the State into eight districts and Chitaldrug district was one of them. These eight districts were grouped into three divi-

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* According to the figures furnished by the Survey of India, the area of the district is 4,194.61 square miles or 10,863.96 square kilometres. See also Appendix—Table I.

**In terms of square mile, it would be tenth.

sions. Each division was under the charge of a Superintendent and each district was under the charge of a Deputy Superintendent. When the Commission was reorganised in 1879, the posts of Commissioners of divisions were abolished and there was only one Chief Commissioner for the whole State. The districts were under the charge of Deputy Commissioners; the Assistant Commissioners and the Amildars were in charge of sub-divisions and taluks, respectively.

The Chitaldrug division was broken up in 1863 and the Chitaldrug district was added to Nagar division and the Tumkur district was added to the newly formed Nandidrug division. Sira taluk was transferred from Chitaldrug district to Tumkur district in 1866. In 1879, all the divisions were abolished. The Chitaldrug district was reduced to a sub-division in 1882 under Tumkur district. In 1886, the Chitaldrug district was re-established but without the Pavagada taluk, which was retained in Tumkur district. Chitaldrug since then has remained a separate district.

Re-organisation of taluks

When Mr. Bowring embarked on his new pattern of district administration in 1862, he visualised that the status of taluks should be strong so that the people inhabiting them are benefited by the administrative machinery. The policy-makers stressed the importance of locating the taluk headquarters in a central place, affording the tax-payer and the general public an easy access to public offices. Many changes were effected in the status and structure of taluks, with a view to enabling the public to have easy transactions with the revenue hierarchy. In the later part of the last century there were seven taluks in the district, *viz.*, Challakere, Chitaldrug, Davangere, Hiriyur, Holalkere, Jagalur and Molakalmuru. In addition to these seven taluks, there were also some sub-taluks. The changes in the status and structure of taluks are briefly described here, indicating thereby the several administrative changes.

Till the year 1882, the confines of the present Holalkere taluk formed part of Hosadurga taluk. In 1882, Holalkere taluk was created and the already existing taluk of Hosadurga comprising Hosadurga and Bagur hoblis became a sub-taluk under it. In July 1902, the Hosadurga sub-taluk was made a *pucca* taluk.

From 1882 to 1886, Molakalmuru in the north of the district was a sub-taluk having a different name *i. e.* Hanagal. This sub-taluk was under the Challakere taluk. In 1886, the sub-taluk of Hanagal was made a taluk and was called Molakalmuru taluk.

Challakere taluk was formerly called Dodderi taluk and in 1882, the name of the taluk was changed to Challakere.

Harihar was a taluk till 1875 when it was made a sub-taluk under Davangere, consisting of Harihar and Malebennur hoblis. It was separated from Davangere taluk and was once again made a taluk from 1st January 1941.

When the States in the Indian Union were re-organised as per the States Re-organisation Act, 1956, and the old Mysore State was enlarged with the addition of other Kannada-speaking areas of the adjoining States, it was found essential for administrative convenience to form four divisions each under a Divisional Commissioner. The four divisions thus formed are the Bangalore, Mysore, Gulbarga and Belgaum Divisions. The Chitaldrug district along with the districts of Bangalore, Kolar, Tumkur and Bellary was included in the Bangalore Division. But later on, with effect from 1st February 1966, Bellary district was attached to Gulbarga Division.

Chitradurga district now consists of nine taluks, 12 towns and 1,239 inhabited villages. According to the 1961 census, the urban population was 17.4 per cent of the district's total population and numbered 1,90,159. For administrative purposes, the nine taluks are divided into two revenue sub-divisions, with headquarters at Chitradurga and Davangere.

The area and population of each taluk are noted below :—

Name of Taluk	*Area in*		*No. of inhabited villages*	*No. of towns*	*Population (1961 Census)*
	Sq. Miles	*Sq. Kilometres*			
	Chitradurga Sub-Division				
(1) Chitradurga ..	527.7	1,366.7	161	2	1,71,225
(2) Challakere ..	798.2	2,067.4	161	2	1,52,249
(3) Hiriyur ..	660.9	1,711.7	142	1	1,31,384
(4) Molakalmuru	281.2	728.3	72	1	61,478
	Davangere Sub-Division				
(1) Davangere ..	365.1	945.6	152	2	1,87,835
(2) Jagalur ..	371.4	961.9	128	1	82,796
(3) Hosadurga ..	557.1	1,442.9	186	1	1,10,994
(4) Holalkere ..	423.8	1,097.6	161	1	1,14,014
(5) Harihar ..	185.5	480.5	76	1	82,309
Total ..	4,170.9	10,802.6	1,239	12	1,094,284

The taluks are further sub-divided into hoblis and there are 30 hoblis in the district. The names of hoblis and the taluks to which they are attached are given below:— **Hoblis**

Name of Taluk		*Number*	*Names of hoblis*
(1) Chitradurga	..	4	(1) Chitradurga (2) Hireguntanur (3) Bharmasagara (4) Turuvanur
(2) Challakere	..	4	(1) Challakere (2) Thallak (3) Parasurampura (4) Nayakanahatti
(3) Hiriyur	..	4	(1) Hiriyur (2) Javanagondanahalli (3) Aimangala (4) Dharmapura
(4) Molakalmuru	..	2	(1) Molakalmuru (2) Devasamudra
(5) Davangere	..	3	(1) Davangere (2) Mayakonda (3) Anagodu
(6) Harihar	..	2	(1) Harihar (2) Malebennur
(7) Holalkere	..	4	(1) Holalkere (2) Talya (3) Ramagiri (4) Bharamannaikana-durga.
(8) Hosadurga	..	4	(1) Hosadurga (2) Madadakere (3) Mathodu (4) Srirampura
(9) Jagalur	..	3	(1) Jagalur (2) Sokke (3) Bilichodu
		30	

Physical Aspects

Generally speaking, the whole of the district is dry land, characterised by huge undulating plains, in the hollows of which are situated the villages with small groves of trees round them. Where there is some water, there can be found coconut gardens. The pastures too are good, specially in the cooler months of the year. It is surmised that the soil was once less sterile, and records of old times mention the occurrence of fine timber trees; but no trace of these now remains owing to the indiscriminate manner in which the forests were cut down to provide wood for agricultural implements and for other purposes. Even a little water is enough for the land to smile and in spite of the low average of rainfall, certain parts of the district produce very good crops in years of normal rainfall. The last two decades have seen some efforts at increasing the number of avenue trees along the public roads but it cannot be said that these efforts were very successful, since, on account of scanty rain, these trees had to be kept alive with much difficulty. The same may be said of the teak that was planted some years ago on the Jogimatti hills.

Hills

The whole area of the Chitradurga revenue district lies in the valley of the Vedavati river (Hagari), with the Tungabhadra river flowing for a few miles along the boundary in the north-west. The west-central part is occupied by a long range of flat-topped, steep-sided hills running in the south-south east direction right across the district. In any description of hills or mountain ranges of any tract or area, the original chain or belt forms an important base on which the topography of the area rests. The two well-defined hill ranges in the plateau of old Mysore are the western and the eastern ghats. Chitradurga comes under the eastern ghat range with a marked interior belt, running from the Biligirirangan ranges in the south to Molakalmuru in the north. The best defined of the interior ranges is a belt, from ten to twenty miles wide, running between 77° and 70° 30′ from the Biligirirangan group of hills, through Savandurga, north upto Madhugiri and on to Nidugal leading to Molakalmuru in the north. The eastern ghat ranges look like a wedge in the old Mysore plateau. Intermediate between these two ranges is a chain with considerable breaks between the component parts running from the Wynad boundary at Himavat Gopalaswamy betta, passing by Nagamangala (Mandya district) and then on to Kibbanahalli in the Hagalavadi hills, finally crossing in a continuous belt through the middle of the Chitradurga district.

District Belt

The district of Chitradurga is crossed from south, south-east to north and north-west by a belt, about 20 miles broad of intermittent parallel chains of low hills, mostly bare and stony, through which are found Kanives or passes. The eastern line runs from the west of Hiriyur upto Chitradurga and thence with a break for some distance continues from Kanakuppa hill (2,721 feet) to the district boundary. Halarameswaragudda (3,875 ft.) in Hosadurga

taluk is the highest point in the district. Birankaldurga (Birankalgudda 3,863 ft) in the Jogimaradi area to the south of Chitradurga town is the next highest point. Echalugudda and Jogimatti hill in the eastern ranges with a height of 3,804 feet and 3,803 ft. respectively, are also prominent peaks in the district.

The western parallel commences at Hosadurga and passes by Mayakonda to Anaji. Around Molakalmuru in the north are some detached clusters of rocky hills. Of these, the Nunku Bhairava hill (Nunkappanagudda 3,022 feet), Jatinga Rameshwara hill (Jatangi hill 3,469 feet) and Santigudda (2,593 feet) are prominent.

Prominent Hill features

The hills in the district are mostly situated in Molakalmuru, Hiriyur, Chitradurga, Hosadurga and Davangere taluks. In and around Molakalmuru, there are barren hills, just above the town, which is the headquarters of the taluk. Not far off from the town of Molakalmuru, a good echo is obtained from the *Kooguva Bande* or shouting stone. To the east of this point is a boulder on which is inscribed a *Yamaka* verse in praise of Kalidasa. To the north-west of this point is the Nunku-Bhairava hill.

In the Holalkere taluk of the district, a range of hills extends from south to north till Arasanaghatta and a branch of this extends westwards till Ramagiridurga. Besides this, small hills are seen near Kudu, Ramagiri and Gunderi.

Near the headquarters town of Chitradurga, a range of hills, wedge-shaped, with the base to the south, divides the taluk into two. Towards the base of this range, where the town of Chitradurga is situated, the hills are lofty, extensive and wholly rugged covered with bamboos, stunted teak and other trees. The Jogimatti hill and its surroundings promise to be of value as a fine hill resort.

In the confines of Davangere taluk, the hill feature is well-defined. A marked hill range extends from Mayakonda to Anaji, within the eastern confines of the taluk.

Except in the region of the hilly belt, the whole area of the district in the north and east is open and plain, entirely devoid of picturesque sights, but presenting in certain seasons, a vast expanse of verdant cultivation.

Mr. Bruce Foote in his Memoirs of Geological Survey of India, Vol. XXV, has observed thus about the cluster of hills in and around Molakalmuru taluk: "This part of the State is occupied by a tract of country of singular beauty. The bold rocky hills, which rise out of it in every direction are divided from each other by equally picturesque valleys, full of fine trees, among which tamarind trees, pre-eminent for their love of granite soil, abound."

The names of important hills in the district and the taluks in which they are situated are given below :—

Sl. No.	Taluk	Names of Hills	Maximum altitude	Location
1.	Chitradurga	Jogimatti	3,803	Jogimatti Forest
		Dhavalappanagudda	3,285	
		Birankalgudda	3,863	
		Echalugudda	3,804	
		Obaladevaragudda	3,660	
2.	Molakalmuru	Jatangi Hill	3,469	
		Brahmagiri	2,317	
		Nunkappanagudda	3,022	
		Jogappanagudda	2,936	
3.	Holalkere	Doddahotti Rangappanagudda	3,751	Devaragudda Forest
		Wadderagudda	3,138	Janakal
4	Hosadurga	Neergudda Chain of Hills	3,172	Lakkihalli
		Kotakalgudda	3,322	
		Doddarasigudda	3,062	Kudurekanive
		Tirumaladevaragudda	3,078	Janakal
		Halarameshwaragudda	3,875	Devaragudda
5.	Hiriyur	Uttare Chain of Hills	3,675	Marikanive
		Hindasakatte Chain of Hills	2,904	

The general level of the district is about 2,000 feet above sea level.

Rivers and Streams

The district falls under the Krishna basin, because both the major rivers, the Tungabhadra and its tributary, the Vedavati, ultimately join the Krishna river. The district is drained mainly by the Vedavati which runs for about 129 miles in the district. A description of the rivers and important streams in the district is given below.

Tungabhadra

The most important river which runs in the district is the Tungabhadra, which has a course of about 29 miles in the district and forms the north-western boundary between this district and Dharwar district. It has only its right bank within the confines of this district. This sacred river, the main tributary of the Krishna, is formed at Kudali (Shimoga district) by the confluence of the twin rivers, Tunga and Bhadra. From Kudali, the Tungabhadra river flows towards the north. In a winding course, the river forms three loops, before entering Honnali. From there, it takes a direct course towards the north. The Choradi or Kumudvati joins Tungabhadra at this point towards the left. The river then bends to the north-east, running towards Harihar, where it is joined by the Haridra, a stream flowing out of Sulekere. Again running north, it receives the Varada on the left and flows near Hampi in Bellary district. Flowing towards Andhra Pradesh, it receives the Hagari and joins the Krishna, a few miles beyond Kurnool at Kudalasangama. The Tungabhadra touches

the district near Sirigere in Harihar taluk and leaves the district in the same taluk at a point, some eight miles east of Ranebennur railway station.

Mythologically, the river has a prominent place in the ancient Puranas, going by the name of *Pampa*. In the Ramayana also, the river is familiarly called as *Pampa*. The name Tungabhadra occurs in *Bhagavatha Purana*. The origin of the river is mentioned in the *Tungabhadra Mahatmya* of the *Brahmanda Purana*. Hiranyaksha seized the earth and bore it down to the lower world. The Brahmins dispossessed of their standing went into *tapasya*. The *Devathas*, who were deprived of their offerings, complained to Lord Vishnu, who, assuming the form of a *Varaha* (boar), plunged into the ocean, entered the lower world, destroyed the demon and brought up the earth again. The perspiration arising from the exertion of the Varaha trickled down its tusks on the *Varaha Parvatha* and formed two rivers, that from the left tusk being the Tunga, and that from the right tusk, the Bhadra. Both the Tunga and the Bhadra rise in the Western Ghats at Gangamula, on the western side of the Chikmagalur district. A bath in the river is considered sacred amongst the Hindus. People from far and near go to Harihar to have a purificatory bath in the river.

The banks of the river are steep and suitable for lift irrigation. Two canals taken out of Bhadra Reservoir at Lakkavalli pass through Davangere and Harihar taluks. The two canals are the Malebennur branch canal and the Davangere branch canal. It is proposed to construct an anicut near Honnali across the Tungabhadra, which, if carried out, will benefit Dharwar, Bellary and Chitradurga districts.

Vedavati

The Vedavati is also called the Hagari. It has a long course of 129 miles in the confines of the district. After leaving the district, the river enters the Bellary district and flows into Tungabhadra. The Vedavati is formed by the confluence of two streams, the Veda and the Avati, which spring from the eastern side of the Bababudan hills. The immediate source of the Veda is the Gowrihalla, which rises near Mullaiyanagiri, the highest mountain peak in the old Mysore region. After emerging out of the valleys, the stream flows eastwards and is embanked at a gorge near Sakunagiri, expanding with the Aiyyankere tank, not far off from Sakrepatna on the Kadur—Chikmagalur road. This beautiful lake is situated at the eastern base of the Bababudan ranges. Its outflowing waters are called the Veda, which then unites after a short course with the Avati near Kadur and forms the joint stream of Vedavati.

The Avati also rises near Mullaiyanagiri and, after forming the Madaga tank, continues its flow east to Kadur. The two streams

Veda and Avati unite at Thangali, three miles south-east of Kadur and then enter the Chitradurga district. The actual entry of the river in the Chitradurga district is at a point midway between Hosadurga and Mathodu. Penetrating the central belt of the hills, it issues thence by the pass called the Marikanive to the south of Brahmagiridurga, where a reservoir called Vanivilas Sagar has been built. Flowing near Hiriyur, the river leaves the district near Ghataparti in Challakere taluk and enters the Bellary district, taking a north-eastern course. The river again turns towards north and at a point nearly parallel with the district boundary receives the Janagahalla or Chikka Hagari from Molakalmuru. Continuing northwards, the Vedavati flows into the Tungabhadra to the south of Hichahalli in Bellary district.

The river Vedavati is a shallow river, having a width of 400 feet near about Hosadurga, and 700 feet near Budihal. The banks of the river are moderately steep, allowing abundant lift irrigation facilities. The entire Vedavati river basin is divided into Upper Vedavati and Lower Vedavati. In view of assured supply of water in the Vanivilas Sagar, construction of tanks in the river basin is prohibited. The reservoir built across the river in Vanivilasa Pura, provides irrigational facilities to the entire Hiriyur taluk and a few villages outside. Three miles further down to the dam site, the right and left bank channels take off. The sub-soil flow of the Vedavati basin is fairly good. The flow in Lower Vedavati is better than the flow in Upper Vedavati, because a number of good streams meet the Vedavati river during its run in Challakere taluk. The water resources in the Vedavati have been put to good use. There is a proposal to construct an anicut near Nandihalli to irrigate about 3,000 acres in Hiriyur and Challakere taluks. Recently an anicut has been constructed at Narayanapura, to irrigate 3,822 acres in Challakere taluk.

Janagahalla or Chikka-Hagari

Janagahalla is a major stream in the district, having its source in Holalkere taluk. It flows through Chitradurga and Jagalur taluks and on entering the Molakalmuru taluk, receives the main drainage from the western portions of the same taluk. Flowing along the western sector of the Molakalmuru taluk boundary, it then enters the middle sector and takes a turn in the north-easterly direction, falling into the Vedavati river in the confines of the Bellary district. Two important hill streams without any names given to them, which take their rise in the range of hills in the north-west of the Molakalmuru taluk, flow into the Janagahalla, about a mile beyond the taluk boundary. Several other minor streams also find their way into the Janagahalla. Another stream which feeds the Gowrasamudra tank in Challakere taluk also joins Janagahalla. This major stream has a course of 80 miles in the district. On an average it has a width of 200 feet with steep banks. Always perennial, the stream has a good drainage. Several anicuts have been constructed all along the basin to impound

water. The stream feeds the Bhattarahalli, Devasamudra and Mallali tanks.

Swarnamukhi is also a major stream, having its origin in Tumkur district. It joins the Vedavati after a course of seven miles in the district. The actual entry of the stream in the district is near Ikkanur, not far from Hiriyur. This stream has been put to use by constructing a dam in Kariyala village to irrigate about 2,020 acres. The width of the stream is about 300 feet and there is an assured flow of 5 to 10 cusecs even in dry season. The banks are steep and allow lift irrigation facilities. **Swarnamukhi**

Syagalahalla, also called Sulekerehalla, is a major stream having its origin in the ranges of hills to the west of Holalkere taluk. The stream flows for about 45 miles in the district, before it joins the Tungabhadra river near Harihar town. Near the source, the stream has a width of eight feet and as it meanders along, the width increases to about 200 feet. The stream is perennial in Davangere and Harihar taluks. The minimum flow of the stream is estimated to be only one cusec near Sasalu, during the dry season. The flow gradually increases to about 100 cusecs by the time the stream joins the Tungabhadra. The Muthugudur tank is a major tank along the basin of the stream. There is a proposal to construct an anicut across the Syagalahalla near Mallenahalli in Holalkere taluk. Investigations have been finalised to construct yet another anicut near Kalagere in Holalkere taluk. **Syagalahalla**

Garani is an important stream rising in the hills near Chitradurga and flowing towards the east, almost parallel to the Vedavati river. Ultimately this stream joins the Vedavati, some seven miles beyond Hiriyur. **Garani**

Nayakanahatti stream is a tributary of the river Vedavati issuing forth from the Nayakanahatti village. It joins the Vedavati, some miles beyond Hiriyur. **Nayakanahatti Stream**

The district is largely composed of crystalline schists, granitic gneisses and the newer granites with a few later intrusive basic dykes, all belonging to the oldest rock formations recognized in India. The schists and their associated rocks constitute a portion of the Dharwar system, and are designated as the Chitradurga and the Chiknayakanhalli schist belt. These schist belts in the district form part of the Dambal-Chiknayakanhalli band of Dharwar schists originally described by Bruce Foote. **Geology**

Generally speaking, the schistose rocks consist of a complex series of crystalline schists, quartzites, conglomerates, limestones, manganiferous clay schists and banded iron ore formations. Frequently, they are associated with volcanic flows, pillow lavas, sills and other minor intrusives and pyroclastic debris. By far. **Crystalline Schists**

the most widely distributed rocks in the district are the granitic gneisses occupying more than half the extent of the district.

Granitic gneisses

Champion gneisses frequently referred to in the earlier geological literature of the area are considered to be the earliest intrusives into the Dharwar schistose complex. The nature and origin of the champion gneisses is a much discussed topic and of late the term is becoming obsolete.

The complex banded grey granitic gneisses occupying a large part of the district are grouped under a separate formation under the title 'Peninsular gneiss'. Peninsular gneisses include a heterogenous mixture of several types of granitic rocks with enclosed lenses and patches of hornblendic schists, of various dimensions. They are usually banded in appearance and of a light to dark grey colour. Peninsular gneisses consist of true plutonic intrusives, granitised older crystalline schists, migmatites or mixed composite series of granitised gneisses and probably unrecognised portions of the primitive earth crust.

Granites

The narrow but continuous range of hills in the south-western corner of the district is composed of different types of granites, classed under the newer granites in Mysore. They are chiefly composed of porphyritic and coarse-grained pink and grey varieties of granite sometimes showing marginal banding. At the contact of these intrusive granites with the older series of rocks, inter-action rocks like the tonalites and diorites are found frequently accompanied by the formation of garnet, diopside, alluminous-hyperstene and occasionally minerals like cordierite, sillimanite or kyanite. These granitic rocks have a close resemblance to the Closepet series of granites and are presumed to belong to the same epoch of intrusive activity.

Later intrusives are of the nature of basic dykes which intrude all the earlier formations. They also appear to have developed in a rectilinear fashion traversing along and across the strike of the country rocks.

Chitradurga Schist Belt

Since the schistose formations forming part of the Dharwar system of rocks are the repositories of economically important ores and minerals, these formations have attracted the special attention of the geologists in Mysore from very early times. This belt attains a maximum width of 25 miles south of Chitradurga and is one of the widest patches in the State. From there it passes southwards through the Tumkur and Mandya districts splitting itself into narrow bands.

The rock formations were first grouped into three sub-divisions by P. Sampath Iyengar. The lower group was designated as the Javanahalli formation, composed of hornblendic schist and allied

types, quartzites and ferruginous schists, a middle series or the Chitradurga formation, chiefly composed of volcanic flows and their altered representatives and an upper Guddadarangavanhalli (G.R. for short) formation composed of clays and clay schists with some brecciated hematite quartzites.

The suite of intermediate volcanic rocks associated with the Dharwar complex were considered to be the product of sub-aerial volcanic activity.

Rama Rao who became the Director of the Mysore Geological Department in 1935 struck a new note regarding the origin and association of the several rock formations forming the Dharwar schists. In a series of articles he proved the presence of undoubted sedimentary beds intercalated with the schistose series and thus settled the much mooted question of the origin of the Dharwar crystalline complex. The recognition of the sedimentary origin of the Dharwar schists led him on to his tripartite classification based on statigraphy and the presence of basement conglomerates.

Volcanic rocks in the schist belt have recently been studied in greater detail and are shown to have been composed of a variety of rock types forming a 'spilitic suite'. Location of ancient volcanic cones and plugs, ring dykes and bedded agglomerates intercalated with spilitic extrusives is an interesting addition to the geology of the schist belt.

Economic Minerals

Asbestos occurs near Mayakonda village. Its fibres are hard and stained brown. It is also found in Hosadurga taluk near Budihal-Ganjigere, and about a mile east of Holalkere near Kudinirakatte and Sunkalhatti. Hard fibrous amphibole variety of asbestos is also found in small stringers east of Gogudda or Gopalapura in the Hiriyur taluk.

Antimony ore

The existence of small quantities of antimony ore in the Chitradurga taluk has been known for many years. Small quantities of stibnite and antimony ore have been got from veins and patches in the quartz schists of the area at Chikkannanahalli. The veins are about 2 inches in thickness swelling in places to wider lenses upto a foot in width. The deposit has been prospected at various times, but economic importance of the occurrence has yet to be proved.

Bauxite

Siliceous and ferruginous bauxite is found in small patches on the hills south of Sivaganga, in the Holalkere taluk about six miles south-east of the town of Holalkere. Bauxite near Sivaganga is usually associated with laterites, capping and acidic schistose rocks in the Chitradurga schist belt.

Corundum

Corundum occurs in the Challakere taluk. Loose barrel-shaped crystals of pink corundum are reported to be scattered in the soil cap in the Ullavarti-kaval, east of Challakere. So far these have not been commercially exploited on a large scale.

Copper

Small quantities of copper ore have been extracted from the acid felsitic rocks in the Jogimardi trap, south of Ingladhal. Other places, where indications of copper sulphide, carbonate and oxides have been noticed are north of Ingladhal and Kunchiganhal in the Chitradurga taluk, and near Kaidale in the Davangere taluk. Detailed work conducted by the Mysore Geological Department in the south of Ingladhal has so far not revealed any rich deposit of ores of copper.

Chromite

Chromite of low grade has been located in the district mostly in decomposed ultrabasic rocks. The chrome iron ore near Kalangave hill occurs in small pockets or lenses; it also occurs as irregularly distributed grains, or large imbedded masses in the matrix of the ultrabasic rocks. Boulders of chromite appearing in more or less irregular runs are sometimes noticed in the serpentine or amphibolitic rock or in both. The area is estimated to yield about 24,000 tons of ore if worked carefully.

Calcite

Veins of calcite in the Chitradurga grey traps—a suite of volcanic rocks—are found to the north-east of Gavanahalli in Hiriyur taluk, north of the Vanivilas Sagar Dam. It is found in the form of regular veins, 3 to 6 feet in width, and running over 100 to 600 yards in length. A saccharoidal variety occurring in the form of an irregular vein is also noticed about a mile and a half north of the Chitradurga-Challakere road near the 9th milestone. These deposits are large enough to be economically exploited.

Gold

Occurrence of gold is reported from several localities in the schist belt. The following are the places where old workings are in existence :—

Halekal in Davangere taluk.

Honnemaradi in the Jagalur taluk.

Kotemaradi and Gonur in the Chitradurga taluk.

Bodimaradi in the Hosadurga taluk.

Javangondanhalli, Annesidri and Dindivara in the Hiriyur taluk.

Iron ore

Discontinuous bands of ferruginous quartzites and the magnetite-quartz rocks are found all along the length of the schist belt in the district. A quantity of 55 million tons of brown haematite assaying 80 per cent of ferric oxide with traces of sulphur and phosphorus, with small proportions of soft powdery

ore are computed to occur in the Hiriyur taluk. In the Hosadurga, Holalkere and Chitradurga taluks also, haematite and limonitic ore are found in association with manganiferous deposits and in fairly large quantities. These deposits are being exploited in recent years by the private sector.

Sillimanite in quartzite is found 3¼ miles due east of Holalkere, and about ¾ mile north-northwest of the 18th milestone on the Holalkere-Chitradurga road.

Kyanite

Kyanite is found near Andanur, north of Kudineerkatte between the 16th-17th milestones on the Chitradurga-Holalkere road, in the Holalkere taluk and along the western margin of the schist belt in the nulla courses east of Kandavadi in the Chitradurga taluk.

Limestone

Crystalline limestone occurs in the following parts of Chitradurga district :—

(*a*) Near Javangondanahalli—The band runs for about 14 miles in north-western direction from a point about 4 miles north-east of Hiriyur, across the river Vedavati and passing by the east of the villages of Borankunte, Gorladakere and Javangondanahalli and disappearing at about 2 furlongs south-east of the 84th milestone on the Hiriyur-Sira road.

(*b*) On a hill near Hosakere in the Jagalur taluk.

(c) Marikanive area.—Including all the region lying to the east of the Marikanive lake, extending from the Hosadurga-Hiriyur road in the north to 5 miles south of Kasappanahalli.

(*d*) Madadakere area.—Comprises the region extending from Kenkere, Dodkittadahalli and the Iplara hill in the north to the Marikanive lake near the Bevinhalli temple in the south. The magnesian limestone of siliceous nature occurs in abundance in this area.

(*e*) Kanchipur area.—Includes all the deposits lying to the south of Marikanive lake to the east of Mathodu and Buksagar and extending in a horse-shoe form to the west of Kanchipur upto Chikbyalkere and further north-west.

(*f*) On the east slope of the hills due west of Horakere-Devarpura in the Holalkere taluk, and

(*g*) Near Devarbellikere in the Davangere taluk.

Lead

Small quantities of argentiferous galena (lead sulphide) have been noticed in the following places—

(a) about a mile south-east of the village of Kurubaramaradikere in the Chitradurga taluk;

(b) just west of the 121st milestone on Hiriyur-Chitradurga road;

(c) on the eastern slopes of Nisanigudda near Nakikere, Hiriyur taluk;

(d) on a hill to the east of Ingladhal;

(e) on the hill slopes near Gonur, about 3 miles north-east of Chitradurga town; and

(f) near Guddadarangavanhalli in the Chitradurga taluk in veins and stringers of quartz as oxidised ores of lead, arsenic and antimony.

Manganese

Manganese occurs all along western margin of Chitradurga schist belt in the Hosadurga and Holalkere taluks and continues southwards into the Chiknayakanhalli taluk in the Tumkur district. It is also found in the Jagalur and Davangere taluks, containing ores of medium and low grade varieties. In the Jagalur taluk and near Keshapur in Holalkere taluk powdery dioxide of manganese is found in fairly large and workable quantities. The following are the places where active mining work has been taken up: Hulikatte in Davangere taluk, Keshapur, Hanumankatte, Mahadevapur and Sivaganga in Holalkere taluk, Karekalgudda, Madadkere and Kenkere in Hosadurga taluk.

In the Kudurekanive State Forest, near the boundary of Chitradurga and Tumkur districts, the existence of considerable amount of float ore of manganese of low grade has also been noticed.

Potstone occurs in Holalkere taluk near Lokadalalu, east of Mayakonda and Andanur. It is a soft, tough, greenish to grey rock composed largely of the mineral talc.

Pyrites

Pyrites, popularly called 'Fool's Gold', is a sulphide of iron ore. It occurs as definite bands varying in width from a few inches to 25 feet in ferruginous cherts to a length of about 2,000 feet south of Ingladhal in Chitradurga taluk. Drilling operations have proved the occurrence of the pyrites to a depth of about 400 feet and the exploratory work carried out in detail has proved the occurrence of the same to a considerable extent. Investigations conducted have shown possible occurrences of the pyrites near Kurubaramaradikere, Kallehadlu and Yarehalli in Chitradurga taluk.

White quartz is found in several localities in the district and in fairly large quantities also. So far, it has not been utilised in any industry and is being used as mere road-metal. **White quartz**

Bronze-coloured glistening flakes of vermiculite are found in small quantities at the contact of the pegmatites with the basic rocks which they have intruded in the north of Kudineerkatte in the Holalkere taluk. The industrial potentialities of the small deposit have so far not been proved. **Vermiculite**

Common clays suitable for the manufacture of bricks and sometimes tiles are widely distributed in the flood plains along the river courses and in the numerous tank beds situated along shallow valleys in the district. Tank bed clays are extensively used for brick-making all over the district. **Construction Materials**

China clay occurs in limited quantities in the hills west of Malebennur in Davangere taluk, also in the form of white ochry schists associated with the ferruginous and manganiferrous ochres in hills east of Madadkere in the Hosadurga taluk. White and variegated plastic clays are found north of Bedarabommanahalli and Bhimasamudra in the Chitradurga taluk. **China clay**

Lime Kankar is a concretionary form of carbonate of lime described as hydraulic lime and occurs as irregular nodules, nodular veins and as thin capping in irregular patches over the weathered surface of gneisses or schists, often intimately associated with the soil cap. Usually they are found within 4-6 feet from the surface. Lime Kankar derived from calciferous chloritic schists are located in Jagalur and Chitradurga taluks and also near Kunchiganal, Ingladhal, Kyadigere and Kallahalli areas. In the Hiriyur taluk it has been noted in the surroundings of the Vani-vilas Sagar dam, Maradihalli, Aimangala, Talavatti and Mallappanahalli and other places. **Lime Kankar**

In parts of the district and in particular in the Hiriyur and Jagalur taluks, phylitic and clay schists with imperfect slaty cleavage are being quarried and used as paving stones and roofing slabs. Since the quality of the rock is vitiated by the presence of thin and irregular part veins, the rectangular slabs are not easily obtained. Hence, quarrying for these slabs has not succeeded as a commercial proposition. The places where these slabs are quarried are situated around Guntalu, Metikurke, Hulithotlu and Burujanaroppa in the Hiriyur taluk and north-east of Jagalur town. **Paving slabs**

Fine-grained light-gray granite is found in the vicinity of Madalakkanahalli in the Hiriyur taluk. The quality of the rock, its fineness and capacity to take high class polish and cleavage into thin slabs renders it a very valuable ornamental **Granite**

building stone. If it is systematically quarried and a steady market is established, this high grade ornamental grey granite has a bright future.

A large portion of the district is occupied by the schistose members of the Dharwar series. The top members of these schistose formations are occupied invariably by the banded ferruginous quartzites which break up and weather into smaller rectangular blocks. These blocks are often used by local villagers for building and paving purposes. Ballast obtained from the rock is also used as road metal.

Flora

In the old Mysore region, of which the district of Chitradurga forms a part, the categorisation of forests proceeds on three distinct lines, *viz.*, the evergreen belt, the mixed belt and the dry belt. The dry belt lies to the east of the mixed forest belt and includes the whole of the Chitradurga area. The tree vegetation is much inferior to that immediately to the west, the change being in some parts gradual. Many of the trees found in the mixed belt are common to the dry belt but as a rule, they are smaller in growth. The mango, the tamarind and the *hippe* grow well in the dry belt. The acacias and the wood apple also thrive in this region.

Physiographically the district can be called a dry and thirsty land with broken hill ranges and huge undulating plains. The great plains are covered with stones and a dwarf species of mimosa locally called *hote jali* and are dotted at wide intervals with villages scattered in the hollows, with some trees round them. These characteristics occupy one-third of the entire district. Looking out on the arid plains of the district, the entire Challakere taluk region answers generally to the above characteristics. Where water resources are available, the soil affords the growth of coconut plantations. The pastures are generally good in cooler months and the Amrit Mahal Kavals have vast grazing grounds in Challakere, Hosadurga and in some far-flung places. But the picture one gets on the whole is not very disappointing. Viewing from the hill tops near Marikanive, the picture which meets the eye is not altogether desolate. The Vedavati valley near Hosadurga presents a grand vista of verdant vegetation with trees spread all over. To the south and south-east along the Hiriyur belt of hills there are forests of the Karachi type. Between Bommagondanakere and Hanagal in the taluk of Molakalmuru, the country is fully covered with Karachi. In the vicinity of Chitradurga town, there are patches of acacias and in the Jogimatti hill slopes, one can see bamboo clusters and second class timber species.

The quality of timber is poor because of poor rainfall. But in village areas, small groves of trees are seen. It is gathered from geophysical observations that the soil was in the past less

sterile and records of the past mention the occurrence of fine timber trees. But these have disappeared owing to the indiscriminate manner in which the forests were cut down to provide wood for the cultivators. This denudation had much to do with the recurring droughts, experienced in the district. In the last two decades, the Forest Department has undertaken the task of planting avenue trees along the high roads. An attempt was made to plant teak on the slopes of the Jogimatti hills but with little success.

The forests in the district are called the dry, deciduous scrub type with stunted trees presenting on the whole an unhealthy development. The total area covered by such poor forests in the district in 1964-65 was 2,13,813 acres. The excessive grazing and the practice of lopping of the trees and the burning of grass lands have been responsible for the diminution of the forest area.

The forest area is about 12 per cent of the total geographical area. In recent years, attempts have been made to redeem as much land as possible as a means of forest conservation. Even in this task, the overwhelming soil erosion and the over-utilisation of forest resources and the poor rainfall have stood in the way of forest development. Forest fires and the run-off caused by over-grazing have added to the destruction of undergrowth. It has been estimated that nearly 80 per cent of the district's total area is subject to severe erosion. Deep gullies have been noticed and sloping fields have become vulnerable to erosion. Sheet erosion and riverine erosion have added to the impoverishment of the land.

The important trees found in the district are :—

(1) *Kamara* (Hardwickia binata).—This is a durable timber species found all over in the district. The heartwood of this species is abundant. The weight is estimated to be 80 lbs. per cubic foot. The seasoned wood of this species is lighter. The wood is used for agricultural implements. The young shoots of this tree are used as fodder.

(2) *Some or Swami-mara* (Soymida-febrifuga).—This red wood is very hard and close-grained. The bark is used for tanning. This species is very durable, not attacked by white ants. The weight is about 76 lbs. per cubic foot.

(3) *Tharad* (Acacia sundra), also called Kempu Khaira.—The branches of this tree are of a darker brown hue and the wood heavier and more durable. Weight when seasoned comes to about 80 lbs per cubic foot. The wood is used for house-building purpose.

(4) *Dindiga* (Anogeissus latifolia).—Dindiga is a good fuel and abundantly used to make charcoal. The sapwood is yellow in colour. The heartwood is small. The wood splits while seasoning and has to be kept always dry. The gum of this tree is used for calico-printing. The green leaves are used for tanning. The weight is 65 lbs. per cubic foot.

(5) *Bevu* (Melia indica).—Every part of this tree is put to medicinal use. The heartwood is used for making idols. The wood is not attacked by insects. It is hard, durable and beautifully mottled. Weight is about 50 lbs. per cubic foot. The wood is largely employed in carpentry. The neem oil obtained from the seed is used in medicinal preparations. The tree is held sacred.

(6) *Honge* (Pongamia glabra).—The wood is very tough and light, weighing about 40 lbs. per cubic foot. The wood is white when cut but turns yellow on exposure. It is coarse grained, fibrous and not durable. The wood improves when seasoned. The oil from the seeds is used for burning lamps.

(7) *Hunase* (Tamarindus indica).—It is most valued for its fruit which is used for culinary purposes. The heartwood of this tree is very hard and durable. The weight is 60 lbs. per cubic foot.

(8) *Kakke* (Cacia fistula).—The tree is small, but its wood is durable, weighing 50 lbs. per cubic foot. The wood is also hard but brittle and apt to fracture. It is used for making agricultural implements and in manufacturing paddy grinders.

(9) *Sujjulu* (Albizzia amara).—The heartwood is of purplish brown and the species is very hard and durable. The weight is about 65 lbs. per cubic foot. The wood of this species is used for making country carts and agricultural implements. Seasoned limbs are used for ploughs.

The forest undergrowth in the district consists mainly of *Thangadi* (Cassia auriculata), *Bandarke* (Dodomia liscosa) and grass. The forest authorities are taking over large areas for purposes of conservation and afforestation. The chief minor forest produce are *thangadi* bark, *kakke* bark, tamarind, *honge* leaves and flowers, gall-nut and *tupra*.

Fauna

The hilly tract of the district has a fair number of leopards commonly called the cheetah. The local people call this carnivorus animal as ***Kiruba, Ibbandi*** and ***Dodda Ibba***. Also in the valleys are found the striped hyenas, bears and wild boar.

The tiger (felis tigris), not of royal Bengal type, is occasionally seen in the scrub jungle in the hilly areas. This type has the black stripes close together over the hind quarters. Several decades ago, the whole of the Jogimatti area was infested with tigers, but with urbanisation all around, the animals have migrated to thick forest areas.

The spotted deer (Cervus axis) is seen in herds in the taluks of Hiriyur, Chitradurga and Holalkere.

Among the poisonous reptiles, the cobra, the viper and the krait are commonly seen all over the district. There are quite a few varieties of harmless snakes, which keep down the rodent population. Different varieties of scorpions are noticed. The crocodile is found in the Tungabhadra river.

Many kinds of wild fowl are seen in the south of the district. Pelican is found in the vicinity of Mathodu.

The bird fauna of this district is not very rich by any means. Common birds are found inhabiting cultivated and inhabited areas. The commonest of these are the jungle crow, the house crow, the common mynah, the golden-backed wood-pecker, common pigeons, and some sporting birds like the grey jungle fowl, grey partridge, water hen and others are also found. The common pigeons met with are the blue rock pigeon, Indian spotted dove and the green pigeon. Typical birds of prey like the eagle, the black vulture and the pariah kite are also seen. Some common birds are easily recognised by their characteristic calls and songs than by sight. Among them are the bulbul, the skylark and the cuckoo.

Squirrels are found all over. The commonest is the palm squirrel. Hares are plentiful on the hill slopes and also in valleys. Rats and mice are common all over. Mus rattus is the ordinary species found in inhabited places. The bandicoot, a notorious pest, is also common. The house rat is seen every where. Monkeys are also commonly found.

Game Laws

The Government have fully realised the importance of forests, not only as yielding timber and firewood, but also for protecting wild life. A forest regulation was enacted and brought into force in 1901 and amended in 1904. This is a code dealing with the organisation and internal management of the forests in old Mysore State. The important legal enactments and the rules and orders bearing on forest administration and the rules and departmental orders issued by Government from time to time have been compiled into a Manual.

The necessity for a game law was pressed upon the Government by both planters and sportsmen in the later years of the last century, principally to prevent the indiscriminate shooting of wild animals. A draft regulation was framed and the same was included in the Mysore Forest Manual. In the term 'game' as defined in the manual, all kinds were covered including antelope, ibex, jungle sheep, sambar, spotted deer, as also carnivora. The pursuit and killing of these are prohibited. Those animals which become a menace to the population are allowed to be destroyed by special permission of Government, after due notification in the Gazette. The game laws are being amended from time to time to suit changing situations.

There are no game sanctuaries in the district. But the forest authorities are contemplating to have one in the Jogimatti area, where some carnivora are found. Proposals in this respect are being worked out.

Climate

The climate of this district which is in the south-western part of the Deccan plateau is marked by hot summer months, low rainfall and a pleasant monsoon season. December to February is the cold season with clear bright weather generally. The hot season starts in March and lasts till about the beginning of June when the district comes under the influence of the south-west monsoon. The south-west monsoon season extends up to September. October and November form the retreating monsoon or post-monsoon season.

Rainfall

The district has a network of nine raingauge stations with records for periods ranging from 67 to 90 years. The statement of the rainfall at these stations and for the district as a whole are given in Tables 1 and 2. The average annual rainfall in the district is 579.3 mm. (22.81 inches). Rainfall decreases in general from the south-west to the north-east. The district receives rainfall both during the south-west monsoon season (June to September) and the retreating monsoon (October and November). Fifty per cent of the annual rainfall is received during the south-west monsoon season. Rainfall in October and November accounts for about 30 per cent of the annual rainfall. October is the month with the maximum amount of rainfall.

The district benefits from both the monsoons. Although the rainfall decreases in general from the south-west to the north-east, the percentages of annual rainfall received during the two monsoons are similar to what has been mentioned for the whole district. This will be evident from the data of rainfall given for each station.

The annual rainfall in the district is similar to that in Bellary district to the north, slightly more than in Anantapur district in Andhra Pradesh to the east. It is slightly less than in Tumkur

district to the south. But in the western districts of Shimoga and Chikmagalur, the rainfall is much higher than in Chitradurga district.

The variation in the annual rainfall of the district is large. In the fifty-year period, 1901 to 1950, the highest annual rainfall amounting to 159 per cent of the normal occurred in 1933; 1908 was the year with the lowest rainfall which amounted to 61 per cent of the normal. In the same fifty-year period, rainfall less than 80 per cent of the normal occurred in 12 years, two of them being consecutive. But at individual stations there have been even four or five occasions when two consecutive years had less than 80 per cent of the normal rainfall. It will be seen from Table 2 that the rainfall in the district was between 400 and 700 mm. in forty years out of fifty.

On an average there are 40 rainy days (days with rainfall of 2.5 mm., *i.e.*, 10 cents or more). This number varies from 29 at Challakere to 49 at Holalkere.

The highest rainfall in 24 hours recorded at any station in the district was 215.9 mm. (8.50 inches) at Challakere on May 12, 1888.

Temperature

The only meteorological observatory in this district is at Chitradurga, which has been in existence for over 70 years. The meteorological data of this station may be taken as representative of the conditions in the district. The period from about the latter half of November to February is one of comparatively cool weather, December being the coldest month with the mean daily maximum temperature at 27.9°C (82.3°F) and the mean daily minimum at 16.6°C (61.9°F). The period from March to May is one of increasing temperature. April is the hottest month with the mean daily maximum temperature at 36.2°C (97.2°F). During this season the maximum temperature may sometimes reach 41°C (106°F). With the advance of the monsoon air over the district early in June, temperature drops and the weather becomes more pleasant. There is a slight increase of temperature in October and thereafter both day and night temperature begins to drop. The highest maximum temperature ever recorded at Chitradurga was 41.7°C (107.1°F) on May 31, 1931 and the lowest minimum 8.3°C (47.0°F) on November 28, 1945 and December 11, 1945.

Humidity

Relative humidity is high during the period June to November. In the rest of the year, particularly in the summer months, the relative humidities are low and come down to less than 30 per cent in the afternoons.

During the period from June to about the end of October, skies are generally heavily clouded to overcast. In the rest of the year they are clear and lightly clouded.

Winds

Winds are generally moderate with some strengthening in the south-west monsoon months. In the south-west monsoon months they blow mainly from a south-westerly or westerly direction. In the rest of the year they are predominantly from directions between north-east and south-east.

Special weather phenomena

Thunderstorms are frequent in the summer months of April and May and to a lesser extent in the south-west monsoon months. In September and October they are more frequent than in the other monsoon months. Some of the cyclonic storms which originate in the Bay of Bengal during the post-monsoon months cross the eastern coast, often weaken into depressions and move across the peninsula. When these pass through the district or its neighbourhood, the district gets widespread rain.

Tables 3, 4 and 5 give the data of temperature and humidity, mean wind speed and special weather phenomena respectively for Chitradurga.

TABLE 1

Normals and Extremes of Rainfall

Station	No. of years of data		Jan.	Feb.	Mar.	Apr.	May	June	July	Aug.	Sept.	Oct.	Nov.	Dec.	Annual	Highest annual rainfall as % of normal and year*	Lowest annual rainfall as % of normal and year*	Heaviest rainfall in 24 hours** Amount (mm)	Heaviest rainfall in 24 hours** Date
Chitradurga	50	a	6.1	5.1	4.3	21.1	79.3	61.7	74.4	89.4	101.6	120.7	59.2	15.2	638.1	166 (1933)	46 (1945)	181.6	21-5-1955
		b	0.3	0.3	0.4	1.9	4.5	4.9	8.6	7.5	6.9	6.5	3.5	0.8	46.1				
Challakere	50	a	3.2	5.8	4.1	19.1	58.7	29.7	33.3	62.2	92.2	100.1	38.1	8.9	455.5	176 (1933)	37 (1920)	215.9	12-5-1888
		b	0.3	0.4	0.3	1.3	3.7	2.4	3.5	3.8	5.3	5.0	2.6	0.6	29.2				
Hiriyur	50	a	3.3	5.1	2.0	23.4	76.7	40.4	46.5	65.3	97.5	111.0	53.3	9.1	533.6	200 (1917)	55 (1945)	138.4	30-9-1897
		b	0.3	0.3	0.3	1.7	4.6	2.9	4.1	4.5	5.5	5.9	2.9	0.6	33.6				
Holalkere	50	a	6.3	5.6	5.8	29.5	80.5	56.9	87.9	91.9	99.3	122.2	53.1	14.0	653.0	188 (1033)	59 (1945)	146.1	7-11-1931
		b	0.4	0.3	0.5	2.3	4.9	5.0	9.7	8.7	7.1	6.7	3.1	0.7	49.4				
Davangere	50	a	2.5	4.1	3.1	28.7	71.9	69.6	91.4	75.2	109.5	126.0	47.2	10.7	639.9	139 (1932)	46 (1908)	190.5	16-6-1891
		b	0.2	0.3	0.3	2.2	3.9	5.9	9.6	7.4	6.7	6.4	2.5	0.6	46.0				
Molakalmuru	50	a	2.5	5.1	3.1	19.1	63.3	52.6	47.7	81.8	139.7	118.6	48.0	7.4	588.9	171 (1917)	52 (1911)	182.1	3-8-1948
		b	0.4	0.3	0.3	1.4	4.0	3.9	4.3	5.3	6.4	5.7	3.0	0.4	35.4				
Jagalur	50	a	4.1	6.6	3.1	22.9	65.5	48.3	63.7	75.9	103.9	97.3	45.5	8.1	544.9	211 (1932)	45 (1942)	177.3	7-11-1932
		b	0.3	0.3	0.3	1.7	4.1	4.1	7.0	5.9	6.2	5.5	2.7	0.5	38.6				
Hosadurga	50	a	3.1	4.8	4.6	23.1	90.9	55.6	70.6	65.8	82.8	125.0	66.5	13.5	606.3	184 (1933)	56 (1908)	203.2	21-10-1955
		b	0.3	0.3	0.4	1.8	5.3	4.0	7.2	5.6	5.6	6.7	3.5	0.8	41.5				
Harihar	50	a	3.8	3.1	2.8	28.5	68.3	55.1	69.6	65.3	95.5	105.4	44.5	11.7	553.6	171 (1917)	50 (1908)	198.1	21-5-1943
		b	0.2	0.2	0.3	2.3	4.1	4.9	8.1	6.3	5.7	5.8	2.6	0.5	41.0				
Chitradurga Dist.		a	3.9	5.0	3.7	23.9	72.8	52.2	65.0	74.8	102.4	114.0	50.6	11.0	579.3	159 (1933)	61 (1908)		
		b	0.3	0.3	0.3	1.8	4.3	4.2	6.9	6.1	6.2	6.0	2.9	0.6	39.9				

a—Normal rainfall in mm. b—Average number of rainy days (days with rain of 2.5 mm or more).

*Years given in brackets. **Based on all available data upto 1956.

TABLE 2

Frequency of Annual Rainfall in the District

(*Data* 1901—1950)

Range in mm	*No. of years*	*Range in mm*	*No. of years*
301—400	2	701—800	5
401—500	15	801—900	1
501—600	12	901—1000	2
601—700	13		

TABLE 3

Normals of Temperature and Relative Humidity

Month	*Mean Daily Maximum Temperature*	*Mean Daily Minimum Temperature*	*Highest Maximum ever recorded*		*Lowest Minimum ever recorded*		*Relative *Humidity*	
							0830	1730*
	°C	°C	°C	Date	°C	Date	%	%
1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9
January	29.2	17.0	33.9	1900 January 29	11.1	1918 January 16	63	35
February	31.9	19.0	36.1	1931 February 28	13.3	1947 February 6	54	30
March	34.9	21.4	38.9	1925 March 31	16.1	1955 March 12	51	25
April	36.2	22.7	30.4	1941 April 19	17.2	1904 April 2	63	30
May	35.0	22.2	41.7	1931 May 21	16.7	1951 May 25	71	38
June	30.5	21.3	37.8	1935 June 6	17.2	1906 June 6	78	62
July	28.0	20.6	34.4	1932 July 3	17.8	1943 July 10	82	73
August	28.1	20.3	32.8	1932 August 17	17.8	1955 August 16	82	69
September	28.9	20.0	35.0	1905 September 30	15.0	1910 September 19	80	64
October	29.6	20.1	33.9	1905 October 1	15.6	1943 October 30	76	52
November	28.3	18.3	32.8	1931 November 2	8.3	1945 November 28	71	50
December	27.9	16.6	32.8	1930 December 24	8.3	1945 December 11	68	41
Annual	30.7	20.0	..	..		..	70	47

*Hours I.S.T.

TABLE 4

Mean Wind Speed in Km/hr

Jan.	*Feb.*	*Mar.*	*Apr.*	*May*	*Jun.*	*Jul.*	*Aug.*	*Sept.*	*Oct.*	*Nov.*	*Dec.*	*Annual*
7.4	6.3	6.6	7.1	10.0	12.9	13.7	12.2	9.8	5.9	6.1	7.4	8.8

TABLE 5

Special Weather Phenomena

Mean No. of days with	*Jan.*	*Feb.*	*Mar.*	*Apr.*	*May*	*Jun.*	*Jul.*	*Aug.*	*Sept.*	*Oct.*	*Nov.*	*Dec.*	*Annual*
Thunder	0.1	0.8	1.8	6.6	10.3	2.4	0.2	1.4	4.3	3.7	1.0	0.0	32.6
Hail	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.1	0.0	0.1	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.2
Dust Storm	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.1	0.1	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.2
Squall	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0
Fog	0.1	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.2	0.3	0.0	0.6

CHAPTER II

HISTORY

Legend and Tradition

THERE are traditions associating parts of the Chitradurga district with stories belonging to the Dwapara age. Before the excavations at Chandravalli, near Chitradurga, were made in 1929, the old inhabitants of Chitradurga and the people of the neighbouring villages were encouraged to narrate the stories about the place. One of the stories told by them connects Chitradurga with the Mahabharata. It is said that long ago in the Dwapara age, there lived on Chitradurga hill a man-eating giant named Hidimbasura, who had proved himself a source of great terror to all the people in the neighbourhood. To this place came the five Pandava princes with their mother Kunti in the course of their exile and there ensued a great duel between the Pandava prince Bhima and the Rakshasa, Hidimba. Hidimba was slain and the tradition has it that two of his teeth, looking very much like elephant molar teeth, have been preserved in the Hidimbeshwara and Siddheshwara temples on the hill. It is also said that it was about this time that six lingas were set up, namely, Hidimbeshwara, Dharmeshwara, Bhimeshwara, Phalguneshwara, Nakuleshwara and Sahadeveshwara. Further, according to Mahabharata, Bhima married Hidimbi, sister of the Rakshasa Hidimba, and had by her a son, Ghatotkacha. Later, the tradition says, the country came under the sway of Chandrahasa, the pious king of Kuntala, whose capital was Kuntalanagara or Kuppattur in the north of the Shimoga district. It is supposed that the town of Chandravalli got its name from this king, Chandrahasa.

Another place in the Chitradurga district that is associated with an *Asura* is Harihar. According to a story, there lived at this place a *Daitya* named Guhasura, who by pleasing the gods, Hari and Hara, with his penance, had obtained a boon from them that he should not be killed by either of them; he was finally killed by them when they appeared in the composite form of Harihara (Hari+Hara). It is said that it is after this episode that the place came to be called Harihara.

Lastly, there is a copper-plate grant[1] at Bhimanakatte matha, now Tirthahalli, in the Shimoga district, supposed to have been made by the king, Janamejaya, who was the great-grandson of Arjuna. In this grant which is dated in the year 89 in the Yudhisthira era and which is in the Sanskrit language and Nagari script but signed in comparatively modern Kannada characters, Janamejaya is represented as ruling in Kishkindha and making a gift, in the presence of the god Harihara, of the place on the Tungabhadra in which his great-grandfather, Yudhisthira, had rested. There are three other copper-plate grants coming from Gauj, Kuppagadde and Begur in this district[2] dealing with a similar gift made by Janamejaya to the priests who had participated in the Sarpa-yaga or serpent-sacrifice performed by him in retaliation to the death of his father, Parikshita, as a result of a serpent bite[3].

There is also a place in this district, which is connected with the story of Ramayana and that is the Jatinga Rameshwara hill, near about Brahmagiri which is noted for its hoary past and great archaeological interest. It was here that Jatayu, the heroic bird, fell fighting with Ravana in its efforts to rescue Sita from him. From a distance on the south, the upper part of this hill presents the appearance of a colossal hawk, fallen on the hill with its wing half severed and its eyes running with tears, all in mortal agony. Perhaps it is this curious appearance of the hill that gave rise to this story.

From the above account, it appears as if this region was pre-eminently a land of Asuras in the age of the epics. Now who are these Asuras, Rakshasas or Daityas with some of whom, places in this district are connected? According to tradition, they are demons; but this meaning has to be rejected in the light of modern interpretations. It appears that such terms originally denoted peoples or tribes, some of them quite civilized but all of of them not only outside but also positively opposed to the Brahminic religion. Just because these peoples were opposed to the Brahminic culture, they were depicted as demons in some Brahminic literature just as, for instance, the Chinese used to call Europeans as 'foreign devils',[4] and the continued use of these terms later led, in turn, to the attribution of evil characteristics to these peoples. In fact, we are told that older accounts did treat the Danavas, Daityas and Rakshasas as men and it is only in the later Brahminical literature that they have been treated as demons[5]. That these names express only the hatred of some Brahminic writers for these tribes is clear from the fact that even the Jains and Buddhists are treated in some texts as Asuras and Daityas.[6] The tribes denoted by the names Asuras and Rakshasas appear to have been fairly civilized peoples. Various supernatural powers are attributed to them in the Epics and Puranas. Even now a tribe called Asura exists round about Chota-Nagpur.[7]

Asuras have also been identified by some writers with the Assyrians, an ancient civilized people of Western Asia.[8] As for the Rakshasas, it is said, they had a great kingdom in the South, the capital of which has been described in glowing terms in the Ramayana[9].

Antiquity of the district

There is evidence to show that man has lived in the area comprising this district since very remote times, at least as remote as the 3rd or the 4th millenium B.C. The pre-historic remains found in this district have been described in detail later in the section on Archaeology. Suffice it to say here that while some of the potsherds found at the pre-historic sites in this district are similar to those found in the Indus valley, Sumer and Crete of the 3rd millenium B.C., the local microlithic culture called the 'Roppa culture' has been found to be similar to the 'Campiguian culture' of France, belonging to the period from 8000 B.C. to 6000 B.C.

Nandas and Mauryas

There is no direct evidence for the rule in the South of the Nandas who were the supreme power in the North during the 4th century B.C. Though, according to the Puranic accounts they conquered all rival monarchs and became the sole emperors of the whole of India, how far their sway extended in the South is not easy to determine. That it included Kalinga seems to be fairly clear from the famous Hathigumpha inscription of Kharavela, belonging to the second century B.C., which, *inter alia,* mentions a Nanda king in connection with the construction of an aqueduct. Some Kannada inscriptions ranging from the tenth century A.D. to the thirteenth century A.D., however, preserve some faint memories of the rule of the Nandas in the Kuntala country, which included almost the northern two-thirds of the present Mysore State. Thus, while one[10] such inscription states that Kuntala was ruled by the renowned Nandas, another[11] derives the descent of the Kadambas from Nandas. Of course, punch-marked Purana coins have been found all over South India and even Ceylon, as well as in North India. But while they can only enable us to infer ancient contacts between the North and the South, they are of no use in fixing the southern limit of the Nanda empire.

As for the Mauryas, we have direct evidence for the expansion of the kingdom of Ashoka in the South. But as to how the Mauryas came by their possessions in the South, there are different views. One view, based on the conformity of the limits of the traditional Nanda empire with those of the Mauryan empire under Ashoka, is that the Mauryas got these parts simply as a matter of course by overthrowing the Nandas[12]. It has also been held that the Mauryas came into possession of their territories in South India by way of regular conquest[13], which, following Taranatha, the Tibetan historian[14], is surmised to have taken place during the reign of Bindusara, father of Ashoka[15]. But this view is not

accepted by all. R. K. Mookerji, for instance, thinks that the Mauryan empire was mostly the creation of Chandragupta, Bindusara not being known to history as a conqueror.[16] Of Chandragupta, we know, from several Jaina works, that he was a disciple of Bhadrabahu, the last of the Shrutakevalins and, from tradition preserved in several Kannada inscriptions ranging from the seventh century A.D. to the fifteenth century A.D., that he was the only attendant when Bhadrabahu died about 296 B.C. on the Kotavapra hill (modern Chandragiri) at Sravana Belagola[17]. But these inscriptions only indicate Chandragupta's association with the Jaina teacher; they do not suggest his rule as such in the South.

Ashoka's Inscriptions

The epoch-making discovery by B. L. Rice in 1892 of three of Ashoka's inscriptions[18] in the Molakalmuru taluk of the Chitradurga district has put it beyond doubt that a major portion of the present Mysore State, including the Chitradurga district, was included in his dominions. All that was known, previous to this discovery, of Ashoka's connection with the Mysore region was the information contained in the Ceylonese chronicle, Mahavamsha, that after the third Buddhist convocation (in about 244 B.C.) missionaries were despatched to foreign parts to establish the religion of the Buddha and amongst them were Mahadeva and Rakkhita sent to Mahishamandala (the region round about Mysore) and Vanavasi (or Banavasi) respectively. These places would therefore seem to have been just beyond the limits of his territories.

These inscriptions of Ashoka[19], which are all copies of his Minor Rock Edict No. 1, were found on rocks on the hills on both the banks of the Janagahalla or Sanna Hagari river, in the neighbourhood of Siddapura in the Molakalmuru taluk[20]. The message, issued in the name of Devanam Piya (the beloved of the gods) and containing the greetings of the Prince (Ayaputa or Aryaputra) and the officers (Mahamatas or Mahamatras) of Suvarnagiri (which was the seat of a viceroy and which has been identified with Maski in the Raichur district[21]), is addressed to the local officers of Ishila, which was the regional headquarters and the remains of which have been excavated at Brahmagiri near Siddapur[22].

What happened after Ashoka in the North need not be dealt with here. For, so far as the Deccan is concerned, the Mauryan rule came to an end almost immediately after Ashoka's death. Even in the North, not long after his death his empire appears to have fallen to pieces. The main reason for this is supposed to be the Brahminical reaction to Buddhism. 'The fall of the Mauryan authority' says Vincent Smith, 'was due in large measure to a reaction promoted by the Brahmins, whose privileged position must have been seriously affected by the extreme favour

which Ashoka showed to the Buddhist monks[23]'. But this view has not found acceptance from all scholars. Some scholars trace the root-cause of the down-fall of the Mauryan empire to the doctrine of *ahimsa* adopted by Ashoka as a State policy. It is also pointed out that the internal dissensions in the Mauryan court were also responsible for this state of affairs[24].

Satavahanas

In the greater part of the Deccan, the Mauryas were followed by the Satavahanas who are said to have been Kannadigas and wrongly described in the Puranas as Andhras[25]. The place of origin of this family has given rise to much controversy. Bellary and Maharashtra [25-a] have alternatively been suggested as the possible place of origin of this family. Those who hold the latter view argue that the Bellary region did not even form part of the Satavahana kingdom, even during the later powerful Satavahana king, Gautamiputra Satakarni (c. A. D. 106-130)[26]. They base their argument on two facts, namely, that the records of the early members of the Satavahana family have been found at Nasik and Nanaghat (a pass connecting the Konkan with Junnar in the Poona district) and that the Hathigumpha inscription of Kharavela places the Satavahana kingdom to the west rather than the south of Kalinga (the coastal country comprising mainly the Puri and Ganjam districts). But these arguments also are not enough to justify the placing of their origin in Maharashtra. It is quite possible that they had their humble origin in the Bellary region which later came to be called 'Satavahani hara' or Satavahana province, and later spread north-wards. Moreover, in the excavations at Chandravalli and Brahmagiri in the Chitradurga district, south of the Bellary region, coins belonging to all the periods (early, middle and late) of the Satavahana rule have been found[27].

There is also difference of opinion regarding the Satavahana chronology. But without entering into the controversy, it may be accepted that the Satavahana rule began in about 230 B.C., *i.e.*, immediately following the decay of Ashoka's empire and continued upto 220 A.D. or a few years later. There ruled in all 31 kings in the Satavahana dynasty. While many of these were insignificant, the remaining few were really powerful kings. The kings of this family may be conveniently divided into three groups—early, middle and later. In the first group Simuka, Satakarni I and Satakarni II, in the second Kuntala, Pulomavi I and Hala and in the third Gautamiputra and Yajnasri were the important kings. Yajnasri was perhaps the last powerful ruler to control effectively the whole of the Satavahana empire including the Maharashtra, the Kuntala and the Andhra regions.

The close connection between this family, particularly the later kings, and the Chitradurga district is beyond doubt. It is well proved by the Satavahana coins discovered at Chandravalli

and the Satavahana inscriptions found at places like Malavalli[28] and Banavasi[29].

Kadambas

After the downfall of the Satavahanas, the empire was split up into a number of small principalities, under the Abhiras and the Traikutas in the north-western, the Rashtrikas, the Chutus and the Nagas in the western, the Kadambas and the Pallavas in the southern and the Ikshvakus and the Vakatakas in the eastern and the north-eastern portions of the Deccan. So far as the Chitradurga district is concerned, it seems to have come under the Kadambas almost immediately after the fall of the Satavahanas. The earlier members of the Kadamba family must have been steadily progressing in the early centuries of the Christian era, during which time we find them occupying the middle-west portions of the Mysore State, where they ultimately succeeded the Satavahanas. The dominions of the Kadambas embraced the entire western portions of the Mysore State, including the districts of North Kanara, South Kanara, Dharwar, Belgaum, Chitradurga and Shimoga, and parts of even the adjoining districts, with the capital at Banavasi (Jayantipura or Vaijayantipura) situated on the river Varada on the western border of the Sorab taluk. Banavasi is an ancient city, mentioned as one of the places to which a Buddhist mission was sent by Ashoka in the 3rd century B.C. It is also mentioned by Ptolemy in the 2nd century B.C. In later times Banavasi was the headquarters of a Twelve Thousand Province, corresponding more or less to the present Shimoga district.

The Talagunda inscription elucidates the circumstances leading to the establishment of the Kadamba power by Mayurasharma, an orthodox and learned Brahmin belonging to the Manavya gotra. The earliest Kadamba inscription in the Chitradurga district is the Prakrit inscription of Mayurasharma himself found in the Chandravalli valley, recording the construction of a tank by him in that place. According to this inscription, Mayurasharma defeated Traikuta, Abhira, Pallava, Pariyatrika, Sakasthana, Sayindaka, Punata and Mokari. The inscription is in large cave characters and is worn out to such an extent that its existence was, in spite of its site being readily visible and ideal for inscribing, unknown even to the people of the neighbourhood. On palaeographical and other grounds, the inscription has been assigned to about 258 A.D.[30] If this is accepted, the current view about the date of Mayurasharma, *i.e.*, 340 A.D. to 370 A.D., will have to be revised[30a]. Another inscription, coming from Anaji[31] which may be assigned to the 4th century A.D.[32], refers to a great battle between a Pallava king named Nanakkasa and a king named Krishnavarman[33], undoubtedly a Kadamba. The Kadambas continued to be powerful kings upto about the beginning of the latter half of the 6th century A.D., the last independent ruler probably being Krishnavarman II (c. 550-565). Ajavarman, son of Krishnavarman

II became subordinate to the Chalukya king Kirtivarman I (566-7 to 597-8), who was 'the night of doom' to the Kadambas. Perhaps, Bhogivarman, the next ruler, tried to re-establish the independence of the family, but was put down by Pulikeshin II, who besieged Banavasi, an event mentioned in the Aihole inscription. The power of the Kadamba dynasty greatly declined with the death, probably in battle, of Bhogivarman and his son. But the family did not entirely disappear from history. From the 7th century onwards names of Kadamba rulers occur but not prominently, perhaps because they were subordinate rulers under the Chalukyas. From the end of the 10th century, however, they again emerge as sufficiently important rulers in different parts.

Though Banavasi was their principal capital, the Kadambas appear to have had three other secondary capitals, Uchasringi, identified with a hill of the same name near Molakalmuru in the Chitradurga district, which has been the find place of some Kadamba records, being one of them.

Early Western Chalukyas and Pallavas

As has been mentioned above, the Kadambas were superseded by the Chalukyas of Badami in this region in the middle of the 6th century A.D. Since then, the history of South India for a period of about 300 years is practically the story of mutual conflict among three powers each seeking constantly to extend its territories at the cost of its neighbours. These three powers were the Chalukyas of Badami, the Pallavas of Kanchi and the Pandyas of Madura. All the three rose into prominence more or less at the same time; but the Chalukyas quit the stage about a century earlier than the other two powers, their place on the political map of Southern India being filled by the Rashtrakutas of Malkhed.

Badami, which was the capital of the Chalukyas, is said to have formerly been under the Pallavas [34] From them it appears to have been taken by the Chalukya king, Pulikeshin I, who is stated to have fortified the hill near it and made it his capital in 543-44 A.D. His son Kirtivarman I (566-597) subdued the Mauryas of Konkan, the Kadambas of Banavasi and the Nalas ruling probably in the region of Bastar and Jaipur. Another son Mangalesha (597-610), who was also an equally powerful ruler, continued the policy of expansion and extended the territories over Gujarat, Khandesh and Malwa. The most powerful ruler in the line was Pulikeshin II (610-642), who, in a fight for succession to the throne of his father, killed Mangalesha. The most notable victory of Pulikeshin II, who had a number of conquests on all sides to his credit, was that he had over Harshavardhana of Kanauj, the emperor of the North. But it was also at the time of Pulikeshin II that the Chalukya kingdom received a serious setback at the hands of the Pallavas. At the end of a long-drawn-out conflict between the Chalukyas and the Pallavas, Pulikeshin II was not only defeated but perhaps even killed[35] by the Pallava

king Narasimhavarman, who was actually in occupation of the Chalukya capital for some time, as is evident from his title Vatapikonda and from an inscription engraved on a rock behind the temple of Mallikarjuna in Badami during the thirteenth year of his reign. But Pulikeshin's son and successor, Vikramaditya I (655-681) not only repelled the Pallava invasion, but also regained all the lost territories and thus restored the glory of his father's empire. The reigns of the next two rulers Vinayaditya (681-697) and Vijayaditya (697-733) were more or less peaceful and eventless so far as the Chalukya-Pallava relations were concerned. But the chief interest of the reign of the next king Vikramaditya II (733-744) lay in his wars with the Pallavas. He is said to have overrun Kanchi three times. The last ruler in the Badami Chalukya line was Kirtivarman II (744-757), in whose reign, Dantidurga, a Rashtrakuta feudatory, who was steadily undermining the power of the Chalukya ruler, delivered a successful attack on him in about 753. After continuing to rule in an obscure way for three or four years, Kirtivarman was finally overthrown by the Rashtrakuta king Krishna I in 757.

This period, which was full of conflicts between the Chalukyas and the Pallavas, must have proved one of almost perpetual unrest to the territories comprising the Chitradurga district, which lay more or less on the borders of the two kingdoms. This state of affairs is probably reflected in the paucity of inscriptions belonging to this period, very few records pertaining to the Chalukyas of Badami having been found in this district. But from those found in the adjoining districts to the south and east of the Chitradurga district it appears that the area was under the Chalukyas throughout this period.

Of the early Pallavas also, we hear little in this district. The only inscription[36] belonging to them has already been referred to under the section on the Kadambas above. It is only from the beginning of the 9th century A.D. that a branch of the Pallavas, under the name Nolambas, gains strength in this district.

Early Dynasties

The rule of the Chalukyas of Badami, as has been seen above, practically came to an end in 753 when Dantidurga defeated the Chalukya prince Kirtivarman II. The Rashtrakutas, who were probably an ancient people and the native rulers of the country, held the field for well over two centuries, until, in 973, the last Rashtrakuta king Karkka II was dethroned again by a scion of the Chalukya family, Taila II. The glory of the Chalukyas, thus restored by Taila II lasted for about an equal period, until about 1200, with a short Kalachuri interregnum for about 27 years from 1156 to 1183. During this period, particularly under the Chalukyas, Chitradurga district, which is more or less identical with the Nolambavadi-32000 region of those days, continued to be a bone of contention and the cause for many a battle between

two powerful kingdoms—Chalukya in the north and Chola in the south. While these were the successive powers at the imperial level, the principal local dynasties that administered the region as their feudatories were the Nolambas[37] of Henjeru, modern Hemavati (from about 700 to 1050) and the Pandyas of Uchangi (from about 1073 to 1183). Parts of the Chitradurga district have also been called Kadambalige, after the Kadambas, and Nolambalige, which is supposed to have been the nucleus of the Nolambavadi-32000 kingdom, in the inscriptions belonging to this period.

Rashtrakuta Rulers

The earliest Rashtrakuta inscriptions[38] in the district belong to the reign of Govinda II (775-780). In these records the king is referred to by the titles Jagattunga, Prabhutavarsha, Pratapavaloka and Shrivallabha; in one of them he is called the son of Akalavarsha, a title of Krishna I (756-775). According to these inscriptions, Govinda II had as his feudatories the son (Parameshwara Pallavadhiraja or Charu Ponnera) and the grandson (Pallava-Chora or Polal-Chora or Pallavamalla) of Simhapota, a Nolamba chief, subordinate to the Ganga kings. The earliest Nolamba[39] records in the district go back to the period of this Simhapota, who is introduced in three inscriptions coming from Challakere taluk.[40] The next Rashtrakuta ruler of whom we have records in this district is Krishna II (880-914), also known as Kannara II and Akalavarsha. One of them,[41] dated 889, records a private grant. Another dated 907,[42] which is on a *virgal* refers to a fight between the Gangas and the Nolambas, though the name of the person representing the latter is not given. The Nolamba chiefs during the period of Krishna II appear to be Mahendra I about 870-897 and Ayyapadeva about 897 to 920. We have one record[43] mentioning Mahendra, dated about 890, and two records mentioning Ayyapadeva; one of them dated 918[44] gives Nannigashraya as his second name and the other[45] dated 920 calls him Nolambadhiraja Ayyapadeva. Two inscriptions, dated 937 and 940, coming from Chitradurga taluk,[46] refer to the Rashtrakuta Amoghavarsha II (935-940); in both of them one Kannayya or Kannarasa is said to have been governing Kadambalige-1000. The Nolamba chief during this period was Anniga or Annayya with the title Bira-Nolamba. He seems to have revolted against the Rashtrakuta power; for, we have an inscription mentioning that he was defeated by the Rashtrakuta Krishna III in 940.[47]

Of the next Rashtrakuta king, Krishna III (940-966), we have a number of inscriptions in this district dating from 941 to 965; in fact one of them, assigned to 967 or 968,[48] also refers to him as the supreme sovereign. During his reign Kannayya was still governing Kadambalige until 964 when he was succeeded by Lokayya. When Lokayya was ruling the Kadambalige-nad-1000, Kannayya is said to have been ruling the seven Gaudalu and the

Komara Gadyana— one Thousand.[49] In 967-968, one Sudrakayya, probably a younger brother of Kannayya, is seen to be governing the Kadambalige-nad.[50] He has the titles: master of Andhra-mandala and Bhujanga (*i.e.*, paramount lord) of Ujjeni. The Nolamba subordinate under Krishna III was Dilipa or Iriva Nolamba from about 942 to 966. Only one unimportant inscription belonging to him has been found in the Chitradurga district; but from some inscriptions found in the Kolar district, he seems to have had the Vaidumbas and the Mahavalis under him. Krishna III was succeeded by Khottiga (966-972), of whom a few inscriptions have been found in this district. The one found at Kyasapura, dated 968, is the earliest in point of time[51]. Khottiga has been referred to in it as Nityavarshadeva. One Pandayya has been mentioned to be the governor of Kadambalige-1000. This Pandayya claims Chalukya descent, which is given in detail in another inscription, dated 968[52]. Khottiga was a weakling and his reign shows the signs of the beginning of the end of the Rashtrakuta rule. This state of affairs is well reflected in the inscriptions in this district. Out of the two inscriptions belonging to this period, one dated 976[53] mentions Kakkaladeva or Karkka II (972-977), the successor of Khottiga, as 'ruling the earth as far as the ocean' and Pandayya governing Kadambalige, while the other dated 977[54] does not mention any sovereign king, though the name of the local chief Arabalava is given. In fact Karkka II was dethroned by the Chalukya Taila II in 973; but it is possible that he might have continued to rule in an insignificant manner upto about 977.

Chalukyan revival

The successful revolution of Taila II thus brought about the revival of Chalukyan supremacy over the Deccan. The earliest inscription of Taila II (973-997) in the middle Mysore region comes from the Shimoga district.[55] But unfortunately it is undated, but may be assigned to about 975. There have, however, been found in the Chitradurga district two inscriptions, both dated 971 and belonging to Taila's father Vikramaditya. These may very well be taken to indicate the growing influence of the Chalukyas during the weak rule of Khottiga.

We had left Nolambas above with the end of Dilipa's reign in about 966. Further history of the Nolambas for some time is not clear. According to an inscription from Aimangala,[56] Dilipa's son and successor was Nanni Nolamba and according to another inscription[57] coming from Kolar district he had assumed the crown by 969. We have two other names after Nanni Nolamba, namely Polalchora II and Vira Mahendra or Mahendra II, the dates of whom cannot be laid down with any degree of certainty. There is little doubt that during this period the Nolambas were experiencing a hard time and they were losing their influence in the Chitradurga district; this is indicated clearly by the extreme rarity of their records in the district for about half a century. It appears

that so long as the Rashtrakutas were supreme and strong, the Nolambas were secure under their protection. The moment this power became weak, they began to feel the effects of the expansionist policies of the other major powers. Thus in about 974 the Nolambas were overrun by the Ganga king Marasimha, who boasts of having destroyed the Nolamba family and had the title Nolambakulantaka. He actually ruled, for a time, over the Nolambavadi country, among other provinces. Next, not long after this Ganga conquest, the Cholas appear to have started spreading their tentacles in the Nolamba regions. We do have inscriptions indicating conflicts between the Cholas and the Nolambas. In at least two records[58] from the Kolar district, we have a Nolambadhiraja Chorayya as a Nolamba-Pallava ruler under the Chola Rajaraja in 1010. It is only after the revival and re-establishment of the Chalukya power in the north that the Nolamba-Pallavas went over from the Cholas to the Chalukyas and their inscriptions begin to appear again. But with the change in their allegiance there was a change in their capital also; henceforward it was Kampili on the Tungabhadra, to the west of Bellary.

Tailapa

To return to the Chalukyas, Taila or Tailapa, who not only regained all the territories of his forefathers but even extended them in all directions, must have been an active and ambitious ruler and has been aptly described in the inscriptions as full of desire to fight with the Chola king and as being a destroying fire to the Cholas. It may be remarked at the very outset that if the early Chalukyas had been largely occupied in the South in wars against the Pallavas, the later Chalukyas had to engage themselves in that quarter in struggles with the Cholas. The period of about thirty years from 973 to 1003, when the Eastern Chalukya kingdom of Vengi was without a ruler, seems to have been a time when the Cholas had overrun the country, first acquiring the territories of the Pallavas and then encroaching upon those of the Chalukyas or their feudatories.

We have one inscription in this district, from Vasana in Davangere taluk, dated 992, referring to the reign of Taila II (973-997) under his title Ahavamalla. At that time, Kadambalige was under one Jatarasa, a Sinda chief. Taila was succeeded by his son Satyashraya (Iriva Bedanga—997-1008), of whom we have no inscriptions in this district and very few in the neighbouring districts also. Nor have we any records of his successor Vikramaditya V (1008-1015) in this region. This paucity of Chalukya records in this period may be explained by the fact that it was about this time that the Cholas became supreme in Southern India and Rajaraja claims to have conquered Gangavadi and Nolambavadi. It is held that Western Chalukya power was not established again in Nolambavadi until about 1015, when Jayasimha (II) Jagadekamalla (1015-1042) came to the throne.

Of this king, Jayasimha, we have a number of inscriptions in this district and others around it. The Nolambavadi chief during the reigns of both Satyashraya and Vikramaditya V was one Irivabedanga Nolamba Ghateyankakara who appears to have married Pampa Devi, a daughter of Satyashraya. Jayasimha II was a brother of Vikramaditya V and in an inscription from Shimoga district,[59] he is stated to have been known as Nolamba-Pallava Permanadi, being the son of a Pallava princess. The Nolamba vassal under Jayasimha was Udayaditya (about 1018-1035) also called as Vira-Nonamba Jagadekamalla Malladeva Chola Maharaja[60] and Nolamba Pallava Permanadi Deva[61] in his inscriptions found in this district and elsewhere. While from his two records coming from Challakere taluk he is known to be governing the Rodda, Sira and other nads, from many of his other records he is known to be ruling over the Nolambavadi, Kadambalige and other provinces also. According to an inscription[62] from Mudihadadi in Davangere taluk, one Jagadekamalla Immadi Nolamba Pallava Permanadi, perhaps the successor of Udayaditya, was ruling over Kadambalige in 1037. And according to a much defaced inscription, dated 1041, [63] from Vaderahalli in Davangere taluk, one Chalukya-Ganga-Permanadi was ruling over Nolambavadi and some other Nayaka, the Kadambalige province.

Struggle with Cholas

Jayasimha's son Someshwara I (1042-1068) next came to the Chalukya throne. He was also known as Trailokyamalla Nanni—Nolambadhiraja or simply Trailokyamalla and Ahavamalla. There are inscriptions of this king right from 1042 to 1068 in this and the surrounding districts. The period of his rule was one of continual warfare against the Cholas, who, judging from their own inscriptions, appear to have been trying to recover the Nolambavadi and other provinces. The Chola kings Rajadhiraja (1018-1053), Rajendradeva (1053-1062) and Virarajendra I (1062-1070) claim to have defeated the Chalukya king Someshwara I. At the same time there are inscriptions which show that Someshwara was also taking retaliatory measures. Whatever it may be, the territories of the Chalukya kingdom appear to have remained intact. An inscription from Hadadi in the Davangere taluk,[64] dated about 1042, which introduces this king in this district, also says that Trailokyamalla Nanni Nolamba Pallava Permanadi was governing Kadambalige. The next local chief seems to be one Narasingadeva, who is referred to in two inscriptions found in this district.[65] The Chalukya Someshwara married a Pallava princess, by whom he had a son named Jayasimha, who took the title Vira Nonamba Pallava Permanadi and governed various provinces under his father from 1048 to 1054.[66] One of his half brothers, *i.e.*, one of the sons of Someshwara I, by an Eastern Chalukya princess, namely Vishnuvardhana Vijayaditya, according to some inscriptions found outside this district, was ruling the Nolambavadi province in 1064 and 1066. Another inscription[67] from Chitradurga taluk, dated 1067 shows him ruling several provinces including

Kadambalige-1000 and having under him a Pallāva prince Banchayya Nayaka.

Someshwara I was succeeded by his eldest son, Someshwara II (1068-1076) surnamed Bhuvanaikamalla, of whom we have no inscriptions in this district. This king made his younger half-brother Jayasimha, with the title Vira Nonamba Pallava Permanadi, referred above, the governor of Nolamba-Sindavadi in 1068. We have two records of this local governor in this district.[68] Some time after he came to the throne, Someshwara II developed hostile relations with his brother Vikramaditya VI who was the governor of the Banavasi province. When the Chola king Kulottunga marched against Vikramaditya, Someshwara joined the former and helped him against his brother. But Vikramaditya not only defeated both of them but also dethroned Someshwara and ultimately proclaimed himself emperor in 1076. In Someshwara's reign, in 1076, we hear of some Udayaditya ruling over Nolambavadi-32000, of whom it is said that he extended the Penjeru or Henjeru kingdom on all sides. He was apparently under the Cholas, as he has a sub-title Vira-Rajendra, as well as Vira Nolamba Pallava Permanadi. In all probability the Chola inroads on the Chalukyas about this time led to the transference of the suzerain power to them for some time. Though this Udayaditya seems to have continued his rule till 1109, round about 1080 seems to be the time when the Nolamba-Pallavas practically lost their hold on the Nolambavadi province. After this date we have only two inscriptions in this district belonging to the Pallavas—one dated about 1160 coming from Vasana in the Davangere taluk[69] and the other dated 1205 found at Ganjigatti in the Chitradurga taluk.[70] The former refers to an unnamed Pallava king, while in the latter we have a Pallava prince Machideva, ruling over Holalkerenad and the adjacent parts as a feudatory to the Hoysala king Ballala II. The Pandyas,[71] better known as the Pandyas of Uchangi, who were the successors of the Nolambas in the Nolambavadi region from about 1079 to 1183, were friendly to the Chalukyas and deadly hostile to the Chola monarchy.

Vikramaditya VI

Of Vikramaditya VI, also known as Vikramarka and Vikramanka and having the titles Permadi and Tribhuvanamalla (1076-1126), we have a number of inscriptions in this district. Though his reign is taken to begin from 1076, we have an inscription at Hulegondi near Chitradurga,[72] dated 1074, giving the full Chalukya royal titles to Tribhuvanamalladeva (Vikramaditya). At this time one of his brothers, Jayasimha, was the governor of Nolambavadi and one Mangiy-Echayya of Kereyur was ruling Sulgal[70] (later Chitradurga). According to an inscription found at Bagali in the Bellary district, one Nigalanka-malla Pandya was ruling over Nolambavadi-32000 in 1079. Tribhuvanamalla Pandya was the next. These Pandya feudatories boast of having frustrated the designs of Rajiga, the Vengi Chalukya-Chola king

Kulottunga I. The Pandyas were undoubtedly of great help to Vikramaditya in his wars against the Cholas. A number of inscriptions speak of the great confidence the Chalukya monarch had in his feudatories, some of them describing the latter as his right hand. Tribhuvanamalla Pandya Deva was in charge of the Nolambavadi province by 1083, according to an inscription from the Shimoga district.[73] The earliest inscription in this district, referring to him, is dated 1093 and comes from Holalkere.[74] He seems to have been in power upto 1123, which is the date of an inscription coming from Garehatti in the Chitradurga taluk and referring to his rule. He had his headquarters at Beltur, modern Bettur, to the north-west of Davangere. In 1125, according to an inscription coming from Shimoga district,[75] we find his son Raya Pandya governing Nolambavadi and Santalige.

Jagadekamalla II

Vikramaditya was succeeded by his son Someshwara III (1126-1138) who had a peaceful reign. There is only one inscription, dated 1143 in this district, referring to his rule.[76] Of the next king, Jagadekamalla II (1138-1151), however, there are a few records in this district. One[77] of these, dated 1143, describes him as Kuntalaraya and says that he drove away the Cholas and made the Chola-nela (*i.e.*, the Chola country) an Al-nela (*i.e.*, a subdued country). It further says that he attacked the Hoysala king (who must be Narasimha I, 1141-73) and captured his elephant. During both these reigns, the Pandya chief was Vira Pandya, ruling over Nolambavadi from Uchangi. There are, in this district, three or four inscriptions referring to his reign, one[78] of which, dated 1143, says that he subdued Male and gave it to the 'ornament of the Chalukyas'. Vira Pandya appears to have ruled till 1148, for, while, on the one hand, he is said to have been ruling over Nolambavadi-32000 in the 11th year of Jagadekamalla's reign,[79] we have, on the other, an inscription[80] dated 1148 referring to the reign of Vijaya Pandya Deva, his successor.

Taila III (1151-1163), who succeeded Jagadekamalla II, appears to have no inscription in this district. He was a weak ruler and as a result of this the kingdom was losing strength every day. His complete defeat at the hands of the Kakatiya Prola was a further blow to the prestige of the Chalukyas. Bijjala II of the Kalachuri dynasty, one of the feudatories of the Chalukyas, governing Tardavadi in Bijapur area and later in charge of the entire southern region including Tardavadi, Banavasi and Nolambavadi, took advantage of this state of affairs and dethroned the Chalukya king in 1156. But he seems to have acknowledged the Chalukya supremacy till the death of the king in 1163.

But that the suzerainty of Bijjala (1156-1168) had been accepted in the Chalukya kingdom even before the death of Taila III is clear from some records. One of such records is an inscription[81] coming from Kadlabalu in the Davangere taluk. It

is dated 1163 and refers to the reign of Tribhuvanamalla Bijjanadeva. Bijjala ruled till 1168 in which year he met his death in the religious conflict with Veerashaivas. Bijjala was succeeded by his son Someshwara also known as Somadeva, Sovideva and Raya Murari (1168-1177), who was not as capable as his father. This gave the opportunity to the Chalukya prince Someshwara IV, son of Taila III, and his followers to subvert the usurping Kalachuri line. Though this was not possible immediately, it was accomplished within the next three or four years. After Sovideva, came to the Kalachuri throne in quick succession his two younger brothers Sankama II (1177-1180) and Ahavamalla (1180-1183). It was during the reign of the last-mentioned king that the Chalukya prince succeeded in wresting his ancestors' throne from the Kalachuris in 1181. Ahavamalla, however, continued to rule Belvoḷa and Banavasi till 1183, when he was succeeded by his younger brother Singhana who, within a year after his succession, surrendered the two provinces to the Chalukya king and acknowledged his supremacy. There are a few inscriptions referring to Bijjala and his sons, dating from about 1161 to 1180, in this district.

Vijaya Pandya

This state of confusion at the imperial level during the period of about 30 years from 1155 to 1185 is well reflected in the contemporary inscriptions of the local Pandya chief, Vijaya Pandya who ruled over Nolambavadi from Uchangi from about 1148 to about 1187. In the majority of inscriptions his name appears without that of any overlord. This Vijaya Pandya seems to have been an enterprising ruler and has left a number of records in this district. One of these says, *inter alia,* that he subdued in mere sport the seven Konkanas, set up on the Kanaka mountain a pillar of victory with his fish crest, had a treasury filled with pearls from the Tamraparni and a pleasure-house among the sandal trees on the slopes of the Malaya mountain. He even appears to have revolted against Someshwara IV with a view to obtaining permanent freedom from the Chalukya monarchs, for one of Someshwara IV's titles was "the lion to the elephant Pandya."

The restoration of the Chalukya supremacy over the Deccan by Someshwara IV (1181-1189 or 1199) was short-lived. The Chalukya ruler who was 'the destroyer of the Kalachurya race' and 'the lion to the elephant Pandya', could not stand the onslaught of the Yadavas, who, under Bhillama, deprived him of his sovereignty in 1189 or even earlier. But Someshwara appears to have continued to rule for about ten years more, his sovereignty during this latter period being limited more or less to the southern parts of his kingdom. We have two records belonging to his reign in this district, both of them speaking of him as ruling from Banavasi; they are dated 1187 and 1199.[82]

After 1199 there is hardly any acknowledgment of Chalukya suzerainty in the inscriptions of its old feudatories; 1200, as a

round figure, may safely be taken as the time when the Chalukyas as a paramount power disappear from the Deccan. This, approximately, was also the time that saw the end of the Pandya family of Uchangi, though one or two Pandya inscriptions appear in this district round about 1220, under the Hoysala sovereignty.

Other minor ruling families

Other minor ruling families of this period.—In addition to the above imperial and feudatory dynasties ruling over this district from about 750 to 1200, there are occasional epigraphical references to a few other minor families ruling over parts of this district during the same period. These are the later Kadambas, Gangas, Sindas and Cholas.

Of the Kadambas, we have a few records falling in this period, coming mainly from the Molakalmuru and Davangere taluks. It appears that the northern parts of this district were ruled for some time by a Kadamba family, with its headquarters probably at Lunke, near Molakalmuru. There are 4 records coming from the Molakalmuru taluk, of which three probably and one certainly refer to Kadamba rulers. In the first three, of which two are dated 987[83] and one 1032,[84] we have one Ajavarmavarasa, probably a Kadamba though this is not stated, ruling some territory under a Chalukya king. In the fourth one,[85] however, dated 1100, we have the Mahamandaleshwara, lord of Banavasipura, Bancharasadeva ruling the kingdom from the fort of Lunke and making a grant to the god Lunkeshvara. There are two inscriptions coming from the Davangere taluk, out of which one,[86] dated 1160, mentions one Somadeva and traces the origin of the Kadambas to Mayurasharma, and the other,[87] dated 1171, speaks of a Kadamba king named Nagatiyarasa and calls him lord of the Uchangi hill.

There are 3 or 4 inscriptions assignable to this period, concerning a feudatory Ganga family. One of them,[88] dated 930, refers to one Chandi (arasa) of the Ganga family ruling Sulgal (modern Chitradurga). Another,[89] dated 1126, mentions a Gangarasa, with all Ganga titles, ruling the Kukkavadi-300 region. The third,[90] dated about 1220, speaks of one Bammarasa of Emmeganur. The title Kannambi-natha, which this chief and his ancestors had in addition to the usual Ganga titles, suggests their connection with the Asandi family of the Kadur district. From this and the find spots of the inscriptions, the chiefs of this family appear to have had under them parts of the western and the south-western regions of the district.

The Sinda family, introduced in the inscriptions found in this district, appears to be a branch of the main Sinda family which gave the name Sindavadi to its kingdom, which had its territories mainly in Bellary, Raichur and Bijapur districts and which had its chief headquarters at Erambaragi, modern Yelburgi, in the

Raichur district. One of these inscriptions, dated 1162,[91] traces the origin of this line of Sindas to the union of the god Siva and Sindhu (the name of the river Indus), out of which was born Saindhava, with a second name Nidudol Sinda. This Nidudol Sinda, who is called Maha-mandaleshvara and Karahata-puravara-dhishvara, is said to have ruled over many territories included in the Karahata-4000. The inscription directly refers to the reign of one Ishvara of this family and says that at that time Vijaya Pandya was ruling over the Nolambavadi region. The names of the territories over which this Ishvara was ruling are unfortunately defaced; but his residence was at Hallavuru on the bank of the Tungabhadra (probably Halluru in the Ranebennur taluk of the Dharwar district).

Another inscription,[92] dated 968, referring to the reign of the Rashtrakuta king Akalavarsha, with one Sudrakayya administering the Kadambalige-1000, mentions one Kerasiga Nanniya Sinda, who must have been a petty chief, making a grant. Another inscription,[93] dated 992, mentions one Mulgunda-Sinda Jatarasa ruling over Kadambalige-1000 as a vassal of the Chalukya king Taila II. According to another inscription[94] from Asagodu, one Sindhara was ruling the Vadda-Ravula-Sunka of the Nolambavadi-32000 in 1108.

As regards the Cholas, references have already been made above to the occasional occupation of Nolambavadi by the Cholas in the course of the Chola-Chalukya conflicts. Apart from this, there appears to have existed a branch line of the Cholas, often heard in connection with Nidugal and the neighbouring parts; their inscriptions are found in the Tumkur, Chitradurga and Bellary districts. This Chola line has been represented in this district by a few records belonging mainly to the 12th and 13th centuries. In an inscription[95] from Kasavagondanahalli in the Challakere taluk, there is Maha-mandaleshvara Irungola Chola Maharaja ruling in 1106. But in another inscription[96] from Mahadevapura in the same taluk, we have his son Mahamandaleshvara Tribhuvanamalla Mallideva Chola Maharaja ruling in 1108. Perhaps the same ruler has been called Vira-Nolamba Jagadekamalla Malladeva Chola Maharaja in the Obalapura inscription, [97] dated 1147 (as he was then a vassal of the Chalukya king Jagadekamalla II—1138-1151), which speaks of him as ruling the Rodda, Sire, Haruve and Kaniyakal nads. Then, we come across another Irungola-deva, with the title Danava Murari, ruling in Nidu (modern Nidugal) in 1247[98]. He was the son of a Govinda Raya, who is referred to in a small inscription, dated 1207, from Roppa.[99] According to another inscription,[100] dated 1278, from Siddapura, Irungola ruled with the Heddore (the Krishna) as his boundary; his son was Bhoga and grandson Bamma; Bamma took under his protection Rodda, Kaniyakal and Siru-nad and further attracted to himself

Cholas

several other parts including Nonambavadi and Ramadi; his minister was Bicha who built an impregnable line of fortifications connecting the fort of Haneya and that of Nidugal. Bamma had four sons; Bijjana, Baira, Irungola and Bavantiga[101]; but his successor is not known. This period of darkness is coeval with the capture of Nidugal in 1285 by the Hoysala king Narasimha II. The Hoysalas, who were the enemies of the imperial Cholas, did not prove friendly to the Cholas of Nidugal either. Vishnuvardhana, who drove the Cholas out of Mysore territories, did not leave the local chief of Nidugal unattended to for a long time. In an inscription coming from Nagamangala taluk, he is said to have captured the powerful Irungola's fort. Narasimha I is described as the breaker of Irungola's pride. In 1218, Ballala II had encamped at Nidugal. In 1267, Irungola made a raid into the Hoysala territory, and in 1276, he joined the Sevuna army in its invasion of Dorasamudra. Finally in 1285, Narasimha II marched against Nidugal and reduced it.

We, however, have two other Chola records belonging to a later period: one dated 1410 referring to Deva Raya and the other dated 1554 referring to Sadashiva Raya of Vijayanagara[102]. In the former, we have one Gopa Chamupa ruling the great Nidugal hill-fort and in the latter, a Papaideva Chola Maha-arasu ruling the Rayadurga kingdom.

Hoysalas and Yadavas

Hoysalas of Dorasamudra and Yadavas of Devagiri.—The Hoysala inscriptions begin to appear in this district from the reign of Ballala II (1173-1220), who was the first independent Hoysala king, the earlier rulers being the feudatories of the Chalukyas of Kalyana. But at least a part of the district appears to have been included in the Hoysala kingdom since the days of his grandfather Vishnuvardhana (1106-1141), since Nolambavadi has been mentioned as one of the provinces over which he ruled.[103] Ballala II was the co-regent of his father Narasimha I (1141-1173) since about 1168. About 1172 Ballala rose in rebellion against his father and attempted to set up his independent rule. He, however, came to the throne on the death of Narasimha I in 1173. The conquest of Uchangi was one of the major events of his life, and finds references in his inscriptions (found outside the Chitradurga district). The accounts, of course, are often exaggerated. The strength of the fortress of Uchangi has been suggested by saying that the Cholas laid siege to it for 12 years without success. But Ballala is stated to have attacked it and brought it under his control by mounting on it but one cubit. This event is said to have brought him the title of Giri-durgamalla.[104] Uchangi is described to have had a moat as deep as Patala, as broad as the eight cardinal points and as high as the sky! The fact simply appears to be that Uchangi was a strong fort and its conquest brought fame to Ballala II. One Kamadeva was the then Pandya

king and on his craving for mercy, Ballala is said to have restored him to his kingdom.[105] According to an inscription[106] dated 1177, Ballala had even made Uchangi his capital and ruled from it.

Vira Ballala

A number of inscriptions of Ballala II or Vira Ballala, surnamed Yadava-Narayana, have been found in this district, the earliest of them being dated 1205.[107] This inscription refers to a Pallava prince named Machideva who was in charge of the Holalkere-nad and Honkunda-30. According to this and two other inscriptions,[108] both dated 1210, his son Narasinga-deva was associated with him in the government of the kingdom. Another inscription,[109] dated 1214, which describes Ballala II as the tiger-king, Ganda-bherunda and the setter-up of Pandya-Raya, states that his minister Soma-Dannayaka was governing in Bemmattur Pattana (later Chitradurga). There is one inscription,[110] dated 1215, referring to Ballala's capture of the Haneya fort and the foundation of a city named Vijayagiri.[111] This epigraph refers to the practice of 'siditale', a form of self-sacrifice prevalent in those days; it states that when Honnavve Nayakitti, mother of Halivana Savanta, died, Honni, a Malaya Nayakitti, gave her head to the hook and attained Svarga. In another inscription,[112] dated 1218, we are introduced to Vira-Ballala's queen Abhinava Ketala Devi who ordered the village officers and the merchants of Kundavada to hold a Wednesday fair at Kundavada, the abode of god Somanatha, which was reckoned as the Southern Saurashtra.

Of the next king, Narasimha II (1220-1235), we have three or four inscriptions in this district, one of them,[113] dated 1224, being an elaborate and important record in that it gives an account of the construction of the Harihara temple at Harihar. The inscription states that some people say that beside Hari or Vishnu there is no god on earth and some others say that beside Hara or Shiva there is no god on earth; in order to remove these doubts of mankind, they (the gods) assumed in Kudalur the one form of Harihara. The epigraph gives a description of the beauties of the temple and says that Narasimha caused it to be made, adorning it with 115 Kalasas. It states that the king was divinely directed to build it. The inscription also gives an elaborate account of the origin and rise of the Hoysalas.

Of Narasimha II's successor Someshvara (1235-1254), we have only two unimportant records in this district, while we have at least four inscriptions belonging to the next ruler Narasimha III (1254-1291). One of the latter dated 1268,[114] which is an elaborate inscription, gives the geneology of Soma, the minister and the general of the Hoysala king. It states that Soma had a tower of five storeys built at the eastern gate of the Harihara temple and adorned it with golden Kalasas. Another inscription, dated 1286,[115] introduces another great minister of the king, namely

Perumale Mantri, who is said to have purchased a tank called the Kurubakaleya tank and the lands under it in the Bemmattanur Vratti, marked out the boundaries with stones, formed 24 sites in that land and given them to the Brahmins of the Brahmapuri of Perumalepura established by himself at the Huli well of the Bemmattanur hill-fort. It also speaks of his other numerous grants to the local temples and of his reconstruction of the Kurubakaleya tank which he renamed after himself as Perumalesamudra. There has been found another inscription [116] of the same date, which also describes a number of grants made by the same minister Perumale Deva Dannayaka to the five lingas of the *tirtha* said to have been established by the Pandavas at Bemmattanur.

The remaining Hoysala inscriptions in the district belong to the reign of Ballala III (1291-1342) who was the last independent Hoysala king. In one of these inscriptions, dated 1313,[117] there is an interesting reference to the present of a 'hodake' (or a shawl), made by the Mahamandaleshvara Vinjhadeva Rane to the king in order to appease him for not having gone to the meeting of Huliyurnad. 'The reference' says Lewis Rice 'may possibly be to the fine camblets or blankets made in this district, some of which, especially woven for royalty, can be rolled up into a hollow bamboo or even passed through a ring.'[118]

Muhammadan invasions

In this reign occurred the Muhammadan invasions from Delhi which eventually brought the Hoysala rule to an end. The first of these was led in 1310 by Malik Kafur, the general of Ala-ud-din Khilji, in the course of which the country on the route of the army was laid waste. King Ballala was defeated and taken prisoner. Dorasamudra was sacked and the enemy returned to Delhi 'literally laden with gold'. Ballala, however, was soon liberated and set up a semblance of a rule again at Dorasamudra, which he rebuilt about 1316. But the second Muhammadan invasion by Muhammad-bin-Tughlaq in 1326 completely demolished it. Ballala, thereafter, appears to have retired to the south and settled first at Tondanur (Tonnur near Srirangapattana) and later at Annamale (Tiruvannamalai in the South Arcot district). This state of affairs is depicted in the last two Hoysala inscriptions in this district,[119] dated 1328 and 1338. The former of these states that the king, attended by four princes, had gone away to reside at Annamale and the latter says that the king's house-minister, Hiriya Ballappa Dannayaka, was ruling the kingdom.

The Yadavas or Sevunas of Devagiri were the rivals of the Hoysalas in contending for the possession of the Chalukya and Kalachuri kingdoms. They claim descent from Lord Krishna and style themselves as lords of Dvaravati (or Dvaraka). There were several severe battles between the Hoysalas and Yadavas and

their claims and counter claims, often conflicting with each other, are met with in a number of inscriptions found in the middle Mysore districts. Upto about the end of the reign of Ballala II (about 1220), who by a series of victories over the forces of the Yadavas under Bhillama V (1187-1191) and Jaitugi (1191-1210) carried his conquests upto and, even beyond, the Krishna, the Hoysalas were supreme in this country. Later, however, the Yadavas gained the upper hand and the Hoysalas were forced to retire to the south of the Tungabhadra. The earliest of the Yadava inscriptions south of this boundary belong to the time of Singhana (1210-1247), who perhaps took the advantage of Ballala II's death to extend his territories in the South. In this and the succeeding reigns, a part of the Chitradurga district, more or less comprising the present Davangere taluk, wherein almost all the Yadava inscriptions are concentrated, appears to have been under the Yadavas.

The earliest Yadava inscription[120] in the Chitradurga district is dated 1250 and belongs to the reign of Krishna or Kanhara (1247-1260). It is a very much defaced inscription found at Kadlabalu in the Davangere taluk. His other inscription[121] is dated 1258 and comes from Chikkabidare in the same taluk. It states that one of Krishna's generals set up the god Kanneshvara in Bidare on the east bank of the Tungabhadra in the Bikkiga-70 of the province of Nolambavadi-32000, and made grants for it. One Chandi Setti is represented as ruling locally at Huligere.

Of Mahadeva, younger brother of Krishna, who was the next king (1260-1271), we have a number of inscriptions, most of them recording grants made by local chiefs. According to two or three of these, Anuje modern Anaji, a village 12 miles east of Davangere) was a great Agrahara town, and according to another, Betur was superior to Kanchi and the chief place for the Jangama worship.

Ramachandra Yadava

There are a few inscriptions belonging to the next king, Ramachandra (1271-1309), who was the last Yadava king to have inscriptions in this district. In one of these inscriptions, dated 1271[122], one Kuchi Raja is said to have received the circle of Betur and other villages from the king. In another[123] dated 1275, one Tipparaja or Tipparasa, a minister of Ramachandra, is represented to have been given by the latter the government of the region from Rayanakhande in the south to the Perdore (Krishna) in the north. His most important inscription, however, is the one dated 1280, found at Harihar and recording the construction of a temple at Harihar.[124] The inscription, which is a high-flown composition, commences with elaborate invocations and gives the geneology of the kings. It refers to an earlier Yadava invasion of the Hoysala territories in which the Yadava general, under Mahadeva, named Saluva Tikkama Deva Rane is said to

have led a victorious expedition against Dorasamudra and taken back with him a tribute of all kinds of wealth, elephants and horses. The king Mahadeva, on first seeing Harihara-pura, 'where Hari and Hara had manifested themselves not separately but in one form, for the destruction of Guha ; looking upon it as combining all the glories of Kuru, Kashi, Varanasi, Himagiri, Gaya, Godavari and Sriranga, he is stated to have made it a *manya* (rent-free) in his name. On a second visit, he is further stated to have made it a Sarvamanya (free from all taxes) agrahara. And Saluva Tikkama himself after obtaining permission, is said to have set up near the god Harihara an image of Lakshmi-Narayana in the name of his master Mahadeva-raya and later constructed a temple and fixed on it a golden Kalasa and made grants for it. All the Brahmins of Harihara and the citizens of Uchangi and Betur and all other chief cities of Nonambavadi, etc., are said to have held a great meeting at Harihar to decide the dues to be granted for the god. The Yadava inscription is dated 1300 and records the regrant of Harihar to the Brahmins by one Khandeya Raya son of Mummadi Singeya Nayaka.

No inscription belonging to the last Yadava king Shankara, who ruled for only 3 years and in whose reign the kingdom fell a prey to the Muslim invaders, has been found in this region. By 1318, the Deccan kingdom was annexed to the Khilji empire by Mubarak Shah and one Malik Yaklakhi was made the governor of Devagiri. In spite of this annexation, however, considerable areas of the Yadava kingdom, particularly in the south, were still outside the Muslim empire and one such part was the kingdom of Kampili, which soon proclaimed its independence under Singeya Nayaka and his son. Malik Kafur had tried to annex this part also. He led an unsuccessful expedition against Kampili, and before making a second attempt, he was recalled to Delhi. The north-west part of the district perhaps formed a part of this kingdom until its fall in about 1327. Later it again appears to have formed part of the Hoysala territories till the establishment of the Vijayanagara kingdom.

Vijayanagara kingdom

There are no inscriptions in this district belonging to the first ruler of the Vijayanagara kingdom, Harihara I (1336-1356). The earliest Vijayanagara inscription in this district[125] is dated 1354 ; but it refers to his brother Bukka I normally held to have ruled from 1356 to 1376. It records a grant made by him of a hamlet of Hariharadevapura which is stated to be in the Uchangiventhe belonging to the Kottur-chavadi. Two of his inscriptions[126] dated 1355 and 1356 show one Mallinatha Wodeyar ruling at Bemmattanakallu (or Chitradurga), where he built an upper storey of stone to the Siddhanatha temple. He is said to have been the son of Aliya Sayi Nayaka, who may have been a son-in-law (Aliya) of the king.

Of the next ruler Harihara II (1376-1404), there are a few inscriptions in this district. One of them[127] dated 1379 refers to the king's illustrious counsellor Mudda-Dandadhipa. Harihara is stated to have been at ease by committing all the burden of the kingdom to him. The minister established the famous agrahara named Mudda-dandanayakapura, otherwise called Chikka-hadaka, belonging to Uchangi-durga in the Kudlur (Harihara) country. This was a large tract with a fine tank, which was divided into 36 shares, 12 being given to god Harihara and the remaining 24 to the same number of Brahmins. Another record,[128] dated 1382, refers to a grant made by the king himself, of Shankaripura in the Harihara-sime of the Uchangiventhe under the Kottura-chavadi belonging to Vijayanagara, to one Lingarasa for the continual recitation of the Vedas and Shastras in the temple of Harihareshvara. After this, there are no inscriptions for a long period of about 40 years.

Devaraya I

The next Vijayanagara inscription[129] in this district is dated 1410 and takes us to the time of Devaraya I or Pratapa Devaraya (1406 to 1422). The record, which deals with an agreement made in 1410 on behalf of the god Harihara and the Brahmins of the Harihara-kshetra, states that the Brahmins at their expense built a dam to the river Haridra and led a channel through the god's land and it was agreed that of the proceeds of all the lands irrigated by that channel as far as it went, two-thirds were to go to the god and one-third to Brahmins. The minister Jagannatha, obtaining the permission of the king, had entrusted the work of the dam to his son Bullapa who had carried it out to the satisfaction of the Brahmins. A further agreement was made that the expenses for the repairs of the wells and tanks made under this channel should be borne in the same proportions as mentioned above and the same should apply to the distribution of water as well. Besides, there is another inscription,[130] which also pertains to the history of this dam. Some time after its construction the dam was breached and the Brahmins, who depended on it for their means of livelihood, were in great distress. Bullaraja, who had built it, therefore, looked for somebody who could provide for the expenses of restoring it. He fixed upon Chama-nrupa, the commander of the whole of the king's army. He explained to him the calamitous results of the breach of the dam in the loss of the provision both for the worship of the god and the living of the Brahmins and pointed out to him the unlimited merit that would be the reward for the repairs of the dam. The general agreed to the proposal and paid over to Bullarasa and the Brahmins the amount required and the dam was restored in 1424. The inscription is filled with praises of Chama-nrupa and Bullaraja who were responsible for this. There is another inscription,[131] dated 1411, which records a grant of a village named Kanchiganahalli to the

east of Bemmattanakallu for the purpose of providing for the decoration and festivals of the god Hidimbanatha near Bemmattanakallapattana, by the Mahamandaleshvara Mallanna Wodeyar, son of the king Devaraya.

Praudha Devaraya

The next king of whom we have inscriptions in this district is Devaraya or Pratapa Devaraya II or Praudha Devaraya (1422-1446), there being no records of Vijaya or Bukka III who ruled for a few months only in 1422. Three or four inscriptions of Devaraya II have been found, out of which, one[132] dated 1428, though it is dated in his reign deals with events belonging to the previous reigns. Harihara Raya of Vijayanagara is said to have captured the widow of a chief of Karayapattana which is described to have been situated to the west of the Abhinava (or new) Jambudwipa. The widow, with her son Jakka Deva and three other children, was given protection by Kandikere Bayire Nayaka, and by order of Saurashtra Soma, their family god, Jakka Deva is said to have built a tank in 1417 to the south of the river Meddera Halla to the south of Hiriyur, and set up an image of god Someshvara in order that Bayire Nayaka might acquire merit. Two other inscriptions,[133] dated 1430 and 1434, refer to the grants made by the king to Jetogi Rama or Jatangi Rama (the god on the hill where one of the Ashokan edicts was found). In the latter it is said that when the king came to Machanahalli for hunting he paid a visit to the temple and directed that a village should be granted for it, yielding an income of 20 *varahas*, the amount formerly paid for the offerings of the god from the Rayadurga Chavadi.

Krishnadeva Raya

The next two reigns, those of Mallikarjuna (1446-1465) and Virupaksha (1465-1485), are very poor so far as their inscriptions in this district are concerned, there being but one inscription belonging to each of them. But we have a few inscriptions belonging to the reign of the next king, Krishnadeva Raya (1509-1529), the most famous of the Vijayanagara kings. The earliest of his inscriptions in this district is dated 1511[134]. This is a copper-plate grant giving the geneology of the third or the Tuluva dynasty of Vijayanagara. The family is traced to one Timma Bhupati, 'renowned among the Tuluva kings' in the line of Turvasa. Krishna Raya is described as having again and again bestowed the great gifts described in the Shastras, together with the grants associated with them, in various sacred places like Kanchi, Srishaila, Sonachala, Kanakasabha, Venkatadri, etc. The present record actually deals with the grant made by him of a village named Bobur, together with its hamlets Hatadorai, Ganadahunise and Namanpalle, situated in the Maleyanur-Sthala of the Hiriyura Sime in the Kuntala Desha to one Timma Bhatta, a Brahmin 'worthy of a grant of land'. From another inscription[135] of his, we learn that Krishnadeva Raya had given the Maleya-Bennur territory, for the office of Nayaka; to the Dravila-Mandaleshvara

Gajapati-Pratapa-Rudra-Maharaya's son Virabhadra-Maharaya who in 1516 (the year of the record), on being directed by Krishna Raya and in order that merit might accrue to both Krishna Raya and Pratapa Rudra Maharaya, remitted the marriage dues payable to his palace in the Lingadahalli country. Ten years later, we have another inscription[136] referring to a grant made by one Ranganatha Rautta, who is said to be an Arseya Kshatriya, of a village named Nibuguru in the Jagalur-sime which the king had favoured to him for the office of Nayaka. In 1528, we hear of another remission of the *kanike*, *melavana* and dues on sugar-cane by one Adiyappa Nayaka in the village Maleya Bennur which had been granted to him by the king for the office of Nayaka[137].

Achyutaraya

Of Achyutaraya (1529-1542), the successor of Krishna Raya, we have a number of records. The earliest[138] dated 1530 records the grant made by Narayanadeva, son of Timmarasa of the Chinnabhandara or the treasury of gold, of a village named Bullapura, which had been renamed as Achyutarayapura, belonging to the Harihara-sime in the Pandyanad of the Uchangiventhe under the Kottur chavadi, which the Swami (the king) had given to him for the office of Amara Nayaka. The next record[139] dated 1533 also refers to a similar grant of the village Kedagere in the Nirugunda-sime attached to Yakkati in the Hoysala kingdom. An inscription[140] dated 1538 refers to the setting up of god Vinayaka by one Hadapada Vitalapa Nayaka in Guntanur in the Bematrakal-sime (Chitradurga) granted to him for the office of Nayaka. Then there are two inscriptions[141] of considerable interest in that they record the formation by the king in 1539 for the benefit of the Brahmins of a sort of bank or fund called Anandanidhi. It is stated that the scheme soon gained celebrity as a very new thing, 'superior to the nine treasures of Kubera'. Unfortunately no details are given of the nature of this bank which is praised in two verses. Achyutaraya's last inscription[142] dated 1540, records the remission of marriage tax. By the king's order saying, 'I have given up the marriage tax throughout my kingdom', and by the order of his agent, Penugonda Virappannayya, his younger brother Hiriya Mallappannayya remitted the marriage tax throughout the Bagur-sime. There seems to have been much rejoicing at this, as prosperity is wished to every person and officer responsible for it.

Aliya Ramaraya

The last important Vijayanagara ruler of whom we have inscriptions in this district is Sadashivaraya (1542-1570). But actually Sadashiva had little power, the kingdom being administered by his minister Aliya Ramaraya of the Aravidu family and his brother Tirumala. Whatever it may be, of Sadashiva there are a number of records and of a great variety. At least five of the inscriptions relate to the granting of remissions of taxes to barbers. A typical example of such inscriptions states that '............. Timmoja-Kandoja having made application to Ramarajayya, and

the latter having made application to Sadashivadeva Maharaya, the Raya remitted to the barber Timmoja-Kandoja and his family—throughout the four boundaries of the kingdom he ruled—forced labour, birada, fixed rent, land rent, Mahanavami torches,.. ....and ordered a Shasana to be set up granting him rent-free land.'[143] Two inscriptions,[144] both dated 1551, relate to grants of rent-free lands to the salt-makers for the removal of saline earth. One inscription[145] dated 1554 records the rebuilding in that year of the outer *pethe* of Bagur, which was in ruins, and the naming of it Krishnapura after Ere-Krishnappa Nayaka, the founder of the Belur family. The epigraph states that there were special inducements held out to the settlers in the new *pethe,* such as freedom from taxation for one year, and confirmation to the exclusion of old claims if they had taken possession. From a Telugu inscription[146] dated 1556 coming from Murudi in the Molakalmuru taluk, it appears that the king had given the Raya-durga-sime to the Mahamandaleshvara Ramaraja-Vithalaraja-Tirumalayya-Deva-Maharaja for the office of Nayaka. Of this, the latter is stated to have granted Muruvudi, otherwise called Bukkarayapura as a rent-free agrahara to some Brahmins. Another inscription of 1557 says that the king sent for a copy of the stone shasana of the Vithala temple, 'set up in the righteous administration of Aliya Ramarajayya Maha-arasu' and, finding that the grant originally given by Krishna Raya was not sufficient to provide for the offerings, made a further grant[147]. Two others—one[148] dated 1561 coming from Kadajji and the other[149] dated 1562 and coming from Harihara—relate to the granting of the two villages of Kadajji and Ganganarasi by two local Nayakas to god Harihara. Both records stress the oneness of the gods Hari and Hara and according to one of them, he who creates division in this unity will be thrust into hell by Yama. It was during the reign of this king that in 1565 the kingdom of Vijayanagara fell a prey to the united front of the Muslim States of the Deccan. Ramaraya, the *de facto* ruler of Vijayanagara, was defeated and killed in the battle of Rakkasa-Tangadgi. The great city of Vijayanagara was mercilessly sacked by the coalition and the empire broken. Ramaraya's brother Tirumala became the strong man of the kingdom, who ultimately seized the throne in about 1570. These incidents find reference in two inscriptions,[150] both dated 1568, found in this district. According to these, '......the Maha-mandaleshvara Aliya Ramarajayya-Mahadeva-arasu, owing to the action of the kings of the Turukas, having set (*i.e.,* died), and the city, throne and countries of the kingdom being destroyed and in ruins, Tirumala-Rajayya Deva-maha-arasu granted to the Maha-nayakacharya Kamageti-Madakari-Nayaka as an Amara-magani the Holalkere-sime, which he made over to his brother-in-law Gulliyappa Nayaka as an Umbali.' The latter half of the inscriptions deals with the setting up of a temple of Venugopala there and the particulars of the grants made to it.

Lastly, there are one or two inscriptions[151] referring to the reign of Venkatapati Raya (1586-1614) of the fourth (the Aravidu) dynasty of Vijayanagara. In one of these, dated 1589, he makes an extensive gift of lands in the Hiriyur-sthala to one Virayya who was in his service and whose previous history had been made known to him by one Kenchappa Nayaka. The other, which is very much defaced, records the grant of the *gaudike* (village-headmanship) to somebody in 1615.

The Aravidu dynasty continued to rule upto about the end of the 17th century. But we have no records of the last few rulers in this district. They were, in a way, replaced by those of the various, large and small, Paleyagars' families which were created by the Vijayanagara kingdom itself.

Paleyagars

Paleyagar families.—During the 15th and 16th centuries, the Vijayanagara kings had bestowed on the vassal chiefs, bearing various titles, sundry tracts in their kingdom. Such of these estate-holders or Paleyagars as were in the northern part of the kingdom were controlled directly from the capital, while those in the south were placed under a viceroy whose seat of government was at Srirangapattana. After the fall of the empire, some of these chiefs became independent, though many of them continued to pay allegiance to the representatives of the State at Penugonda. But after the fall of the fourth dynasty of Vijayanagara, most of these broke off and declared their independence.

Inscriptions belonging to a number of such Paleyagar families have been found in various parts of the district. More important of these families are those of Chitradurga, Harati, Hatti, Mattinadu, Rayadurga, Beluru and Sante-Bennuru. Of these, the last three had their headquarters outside this district. Their history need not, therefore, be traced in detail here. Suffice it to say that a few inscriptions belonging to the Rayadurga family have been found in the northern part of the district and a few belonging to the other two families, in the western and southern parts. An account of the remaining four families, which properly belong to this district, is given in the following paragraphs.

Chitradurga family

Chitradurga.—The Chitradurga Paleyagar family[152] was of the Beda or Boya caste and belonged to one of the hill tribes who subsisted by hunting and tending cattle. The accounts of their origin are somewhat confused. According to one tradition, it appears that three Beda families emigrated from Jadikal-durga, in the neighbourhood of Tirupati, and settled at Nirutadi near Bharmasagara about 1475. They are said to have belonged to the Kamageti family and Valmiki gotra. The son and the grandson of one of these, named Hire Hanumappa Nayaka and Timmanna Nayaka respectively, afterwards settled at Matti in Davangere taluk. The latter, called Kamageti Timmanna

Nayaka, was appointed by the Vijayanagara king, first as the Nayaka of Holalkere, then of Hiriyur and finally of Chitradurga. He fortified the hill at the last-mentioned place and conducted himself in such a manner that a force was sent by the king against him. According to another account, Timmanna Nayaka came with a small body of armed men from a place called Madakeri below the ghats near Tirupati and entered the service of the Paleyagar of Basavapattana. When later as some quarrel arose about a mistress he had kept at Matti, he left the place and took refuge at Mayakonda. Being pursued there also, he escaped to the jungle near Guntur and from there, collecting a band, started plundering on every side, and erected a small fort called Rangapatna near Haleyur. The neighbouring Paleyagars of Harapanahalli, Nidugal and Basavapattana, being annoyed by his depredations, united against him and, with the aid of some Vijayanagara troops, marched upon Rangapatna. Timmanna Nayaka was then forced to retire to Chitradurga, where he was closely besieged. At that time the following incident occurred, which led to his recognition as one of the chiefs dependent on Vijayanagara. This was in about 1562:

Timmanna Nayaka

On this occasion, Timmanna Nayaka distinguished himself as the hero of a most daring adventure. Stealing into the camp at night with the intention of carrying off the horse of Saluva Narasinga Raya, the Vijayanagara prince, who commanded the forces against him, he accidentally roused the groom. Hastily hiding among the litter, he lay quiet to escape observation, when the groom, driving in afresh the peg for the heel ropes, sent it right through the hand of the hiding thief! The latter bore the pain silently and without moving, and when all was again still, he released himself by cutting off the hand which was thus pinned to the ground. He ultimately succeeded in carrying off the horse in triumph! This unexampled proof of fortitude showed the besieging army well that no intimidation would be effectual with such an opponent. A peace was, therefore, said to have been concluded. The Vijayanagara king invited the Nayaka to the capital and expressed his great admiration of his courageous exploit. At the request of the king, Timmanna Nayaka is next said to have easily taken Gulbarga, which the Vijayanagara forces had failed to take even after a siege of 6 months. The king, pleased with this is said to have invited him to his court where also the Nayaka distinguished himself and was rewarded with many honours. At a later period, however, he incurred the royal displeasure and was imprisoned at Vijayanagara, where he died.

Timmanna Nayaka was succeeded by his son Obana Nayaka. He took the name Madakeri Nayaka and within a few years of his coming to the throne, declared his independence from the Vijayanagara empire.

In 1602, Obana Nayaka was succeeded by his son Kasturi Rangappa Nayaka. His reign was full of conflicts with the neighbouring chiefs. There took place several battles with the Paleyagar of Basavapattana in connection with the possession of Mayakonda, Santebennur, Holalkere, Anaji, Jagalur and other places, which ultimately remained as parts of Chitradurga territory. At the time of his death in 1652, his possessions yielded a revenue of 65,000 Durgi Pagodas.

Rangappa Nayaka was succeeded by his son Madakeri Nayaka II in 1652. He is also credited with a number of victories, particularly in the east. During his time, the kingdom was divided into four regions and the local officers in charge of these were Hotte Gurukanna, Karanika Bhunappa, Abbigere Mallanna and Karanika Appanna. The Nayaka died in 1674, leaving a dominion yielding 100,000 Durgi Pagodas.

Chikkanna Nayaka

Madakeri Nayaka had no children and therefore an adopted son named Obana Nayaka succeeded him to the throne of Chitradurga. But within a few months he was put to death by the Dalavayis, who were dissatisfied with his management. It is said that the failure on the part of the Nayaka to give to the troops the customary gratuities was also one of the reasons for the mutiny of the officers. Whatever it may be, Chikkanna Nayaka, a younger brother of the late Madakeri Nayaka, who, being frightened by the rising, had run away to Harapanahalli, was next invited to the throne and installed in 1676. At about this time, the Harapanahalli chief laid siege to Anaji and killed the local officer Bhunappa. Chikkanna Nayaka went to Anaji and forced the opponents to raise the siege. Immediately after this, he had to run to Harihar to defend it against the Muhammadans, who, under Shamsher Khan had attacked that place. The defence was effected by the following stratagem ; On the approach of night, numerous torches were lit and fixed to the branches of trees and the horns of the cattle and the musicians were asked to play on their instruments as usual at his encampment on a hill called Baregudda. The intention was to create an impression in the enemies' camp that the army was there still. Meanwhile, the Nayaka marched with his whole force by a circuitous route and threw himself into the fort from the west and drove off the enemies. The Chitradurga officer at Harihar at this time is said to have been a Muslim named Sher Khan who was continued in his position by the Nayaka. Chikkanna formed marriage alliances with the Rayadurga and Basavapattana chiefs. It is said that the Chitradurga family changed its religious faith twice during the reign of this Nayaka. First, the entire family embraced Veerashaivism and the Nayaka even caused a *Matha* to be built in the fort and a Virakta Jangama named Ugrachannaviradeva to be appointed to act as a guru to them. But later, all are said to have returned to their original faith, except one lady named Hatti Mallavva Nagati, who continued to wear the linga on her

person and live separately from the rest of the family. Chikkanna Nayaka died in 1686.

Chikkanna Nayaka was succeeded by his elder brother Linganna Nayaka, otherwise called Madakeri Nayaka III. But at this time there arose a serious difference of opinion amongst the Dalavayis as to the rightful successor to the throne. One section of them, headed by one Panchamara Muddanna, imprisoned, and later killed, Linganna Nayaka and set up one Donne Rangappa Nayaka on the throne. For some time Muddanna remained the strongest man in Chitradurga; but soon the other section headed by one Dalavayi Bharamappa gained the upper hand. Muddanna and his brothers were soon destroyed and Donne Rangappa imprisoned.

Bharamappa Nayaka

This Dalavayi Bharamappa was a man of forethought and was really interested in the integrity of the State. At this moment, there being no direct heir to the throne, he, in consultation with the other elders of the court, brought a distant heir named Bharamappa Nayaka. The new Nayaka ascended the throne in about 1689. This was really a difficult time for the State; for, it was during this period that the Mughals overran the possessions of Bijapur and established their government at Sira, of which Basavapattana and Budihal were made paraganas and to which Chitradurga and other neighbouring States of Paleyagars became tributaries. There were many battles in the reign of this Nayaka between Chitradurga and Harapanahalli, Rayadurga and Bijapur in all of which the Nayaka had splendid success. His long reign of 33 years (1689-1721) was equally remarkable for the extent of his benefactions. He is said to have built as many as 30 temples, 3 or 4 palaces, 5 strong forts and not less than 20 tanks throughout his territory. A part of the Chitradurga fort, a number of gateways and bastions are also attributed to him. The only thing from which people suffered during this reign was the great plague in 1703, which took a heavy toll and which caused an almost complete evacuation of the capital city for some days.

On his death in 1721, Bharamappa Nayaka was succeeded by his son Madakeri Nayaka, usually called Hiri Madakeri Nayaka. Within two or three years of accession, the young prince had to face the consequences of a fierce famine and the Maratha raid under Piraji. His reign was punctuated with a number of hostilities against Harapanahalli, Savanur, Bidanur and the Marathas. He was generally successful in his engagements and annexed a large tract of country, especially in the noth-east extending beyond Molakalmuru. There was a great battle in Mayakonda in 1747-48 between Chitradurga on one side and the confederate forces of Bidanur, Rayadurga, Harapanahalli and Savanur on the other. The Chitradurga army met with disaster and the Nayaka was slain, in the course of a single combat on elephants, by Somashekhara

Nayaka of Harapanahalli. During the reign of this Nayaka, Chitradurga rose in prosperity and at the time of his death the total revenue of the State is said to have reached the figure of 300,000 Durgi Pagodas. The chief is particularly remembered for his religious-mindedness. He is not only credited with the construction of a number of temples, but is also said to have made arrangements for a number of worships and festivals in different temples.

Kasturi Rangappa Nayaka II

The next Nayaka was his son Kasturi Rangappa Nayaka II. Immediately after his accession the first task the new Nayaka addressed himself to was the retaking of Mayakonda. This he achieved with the help of the Maratha Sardar Murari Rao and the Subedar of Advani, who, however, are said to have later been bribed by the enemies and taken to their side in their siege of Santebennur. Kasturi Rangappa Nayaka is said to have made various expeditions to the north and south, and in the latter direction gained some possessions in the Budihal region. He is also said to have kept up friendship with the Subedar of Sira. He died in 1754 without issue, and Madakeri Nayaka, called Madakeri Nayaka the last, son of one Bharamappa Nayaka of Janakal-Durga, was acknowledged as his successor.

Madakeri Nayaka

At the time of his accession to the Chitradurga throne, Madakeri Nayaka, who was destined to be the last Nayaka of Chitradurga, was but a boy of 12. This made the enemies of Chitradurga try their hand once more on the State. But so long as there were the Bedas with their proverbially implicit and unswerving faith in their chief, nothing was going to happen to the Nayaka, of whatever age he might be. To start with, Rayadurga made an effort alone and met with failure. Then there came in 1759-60 a united front formed by Rayadurga, Harapanahalli and Savanur. A battle took place near Hoskere in which Chitradurga got clear victory, though with some loss. This was followed by some minor disturbances owing to the activities of the chiefs of Tarikere and Jarimale in the border areas of the State.

By this time Chitradurga had become a powerful State in the south, so powerful in fact that even the major powers like Haidar Ali and the Peshwas sought for its help against each other. Thus placed between these two powers, the Nayaka was rather in an embarrassing position. First he helped Haidar Ali in his campaigns against Bankapur, Nijagal, Bidnur and the Marathas, and had a large hand in earning him victory in all these cases. But in spite of all this, the Nawab had never been straightforward with the Nayaka. With all his outward show of friendliness, he appears to have nursed consistent jealousy towards the Nayaka. He had an eye on Chitradurga from the very beginning and he was only waiting for an opportunity to attack. Meanwhile, in 1777, Haidar was threatened with a formidable invasion by the allied

armies of the Marathas and the Nizam. The Nayaka of Chitradurga perhaps studying the political powers of the Deccan closely and realizing Haidar's designs against Chitradurga, changed his allegiance and not only held back from sending the usual contingent of troops to Haidar's assistance, but positively promised help to his enemies. This was too much for Haidar, who immediately marched upon Chitradurga, rejecting the offers of the Chief to pay a large fine. The siege was maintained for some months without success, when an arrangement was entered into and a fine of thirteen lakhs of pagodas levied on the Chief. The Maratha campaign over, Haidar once again sat down indignant before Chitradurga. The story of this siege forms a brilliant chapter in the history of Chitradurga, which held out against Haidar for months[153]. At last, only by the treachery of the Muhammadan officers in the Paleyagar's service, the place was taken in 1779. Madakeri Nayaka and his family, it is said, were sent as prisoners to Srirangapattana and 20,000 of the Bedas of Chitradurga were also sent to people the island of Srirangapattana, with the sole view of breaking up their power.

This last Madakeri Nayaka was undoubtedly a remarkable man. A brave soldier, a shrewd administrator and a generous chief, he was easily the most influential and respected Paleyagar of his age. Particularly his generosity to the soldiers and generals has been described as 'beyond limits' and was wondered at by the recipients themselves. With all this, this Nayaka is said to have had a detestable trait also in him, which often made him unpopular even amongst his own men. This was his harsh treatment to the enemies. In one of his campaigns against Haidar, he is said to have caused a huge Virasana or hero-platform made of the severed heads of the enemies and requested the Peshwa Madhavarao, on whose side he had led this campaign, to be seated on it and take a bath (Abhiseka) with enemies' blood! And when the Peshwa refused to do so, the Nayaka is further said to have had the honour done to himself[154]. After the death of the Nayaka, the Chitradurga treasury is said to have yielded to Haidar, *inter alia*, the following numbers of various coins: 6,400,000 silver, 100,000 royal, 1,700,000 Ashrafi, 2,500,000 Dabolikadali and 1,000,000 Chavuri.

Thus came to an end the Chitradurga line of Paleyagars, after ruling well over two centuries over a pretty large area comprising the present district of Chitradurga together with some outlying tracts. Here is a modest appreciation of these Nayakas, in general: 'These princes were invariably valorous in battle, merciful and generous to their enemies, wise and discreet in their administration, far-sighted in their policy, thoroughly religious and orthodox in their belief and liberal to a fault. These powerful chieftains had some French engineers in their service and built very strong fortresses and other works of public utility as the

standing monuments of their glory. Had these Palayagars routed Haidar's army and become victorious, what change there would have been in the history of Southern India, it is difficult to tell.'[155]

Harati family

The Harati family is also known as the Nidugal family. The founder of this family appears to have come from the neighbourhood of Bijapur. According to tradition, he belonged to a Kshatriya family which had settled at Dodderi, Harati and Sarvad in the Bijapur region. His name was Tippanna Nayaka and he was the son of one Timmaraja. He later appears to have come to Kamalapura near Vijayanagara. A story is told to explain how he got the name Tippanna Nayaka. It says that when his mother was only seven years old, she conceived by the sun. Her father, to avert disgrace, exposed the child to which she gave birth, on a *tippe* or dung hill. The child was picked up by a cowherd named Kamma, who brought him up as his own. After a time, the Kamma removed to Kamalapura, where there was an enclosure for the exhibition of tiger-fights. Once when the king Krishnadeva Raya was present there, a tiger got loose and ran among the cattle. The boy immediately attacked the beast with his axe and killed it. The king made enquiry regarding such a daring youth and on hearing his story, took him away from Kamma and made him a Nayaka. At the same time, from the fact of his having been found on a *tippe*, he gave him the name Tippanna Nayaka. Another story has it that he later defeated a noted athletic champion, who had prevailed against all other opponents at the Vijayanagara court, for which exploit he was granted by Krishnadeva Raya a tract of country in the east of the Chitradurga district, to be cleared of jungle and formed into an estate. Settling at Machisamudra, Gosikeri and Challakere, he is said to have built two towns and named them Dodderi and Harati after the towns of his ancestors in the Bijapur country. His possessions extended from Chitradurga to Pavagada and from Molakalmuru to Sira. At the time of his death, which occurred sometime in the latter half of the 16th century, he divided his territory among his seven sons. There are two[156] inscriptions in this district giving a connected account of this family.

On the invasion of the country by the Bijapur army, the descendants of these were driven from their respective possessions, and Timmanna Nayaka who was one of these and who had lost Dodderi, retired to the hill of Nidugal, which he fortified. The family remained thereafter at that place paying a tribute to Sira. When Sira was captured by Haidar Ali in 1761, the then Nidugal chief, also called Timmanna Nayaka, submitted to him and agreed to pay him tribute. Later, while accompanying Tipu Sultan in the expedition against Mangalore, Timmanna Nayaka fell ill and at the time of his death, was compelled to sign a letter relinquishing his territory and ordering his son Hottenna Nayaka to deliver it up to the governor of Chitradurga. Possession was at

once taken and Hottenna Nayaka and his brother were sent as prisoners to Chitradurga and thence to Srirangapattana, where they were ultimately put to death when the British army ascended the ghats.

There are a number of inscriptions of this family in this district, found mainly in the Challakere and Hiriyur taluks.

Hatti family

Hatti was the former name of the village which is now called Nayakanahatti. The traditional history of this place traces the origin of the chiefs of this place to one Kotte Malla Nayaka, who was the owner of numerous flocks and herds of superior cattle, living in the forests of Karamale and Kommamale to the east of the Srishaila mountains and who, compelled by famine, moved southwards and ultimately settled, with 1200 head of cattle, in the neighbourhood of Hatti. He obtained permission from Vijayanagara to clear some of the forests, set up villages and bring the region under cultivation. Finally he is said to have got from the king all the country round Kondarpidurga, with the title of Paleyagar.

One of his descendants, in the third generation, separated from the main line with his cattle and founded Hatti as a residence for himself. At a later time, Budi Malla Nayaka of this family rendered important service to Vijayanagara, and, by victory over a jatti or wrestler, obtained the name Bhima; he built a tank which came to be known as Bhimanakere. Afterwards, Malla Nayaka, at the request of Bomma Nayaka of Rayadurga, gave him 2,000 red and 1,000 white cattle and obtained in exchange the hill of Molakalmuru, which he fortified. But in the time of his son, it was seized by Bharamappa Nayaka of Chitradurga, who confined the Paleyagar to his original estate of Hatti. This too was shortly taken by Hire Madakeri Nayaka and annexed to Chitradurga, of which it remained a part till captured by Haidar Ali.

Hatti chiefs are referred to in two or three inscriptions in this district, dated between 1620 and 1625. In two of these, Hatti Mallappa Nayaka's son Kasturi Mallappa Nayaka is mentioned. This Mallappa Nayaka is supposed to be the Malla Nayaka mentioned above, who obtained Molakalmuru, and Kasturi Mallappa Nayaka's mother Lakshmamma Nagati is supposed to have belonged to the Chitradurga family, as her son adopted the prefix Kasturi.[157]

Mattinadu family

The Mattinadu, also called Mattedu (modern Mathodu), line of Paleyagars is said to have been founded by one Giriyappa Nayaka, a handsome man of great stature and strength, which he exercised for catching the wild beasts of the neighbourhood.[158] He was made the Paleyagar of Lakavanhalli, his native place, and granted some villages yielding a revenue of 9,000 pagodas, by

Venkatapati Raya in about 1604, in appreciation of his having brought under control an infuriated elephant which had broken loose and was playing havoc at the capital, Penugonda. In 1710, Dodala Nayaka, a descendant of his, built the fort at Mathodu. He was the first to adopt the Lingayat faith in the line. His son, Sangappa Nayaka, is said to have distinguished himself at the court of Srirangapattana by his daring feats. Next succeeded Halappa Nayaka and, after him, Siddappa Nayaka. This Siddappa Nayaka had an elder brother, Dodala Nayaka, who was dissatisfied by this arrangement. He repaired to Chitradurga, the Paleyagars of which took up his cause, and, defeating his brother, installed him in his place, subject to the payment of a tribute to Chitradurga. On Siddappa Nayaka being taken prisoner to Chitradurga, the Paleyagar's daughter is said to have fallen in love with him. Eventually he married her and his territory was restored to him. His son Halappa was induced by the growing power of Haidar Ali to assist him against Chitradurga in his first siege of it. On Haidar's withdrawal, the Paleyagars of Chitradurga, in revenge, took Mathodu by assault, plundered the town and carried Halappa as prisoner. On the fall of Chitradurga, Halappa was released ; but he never regained his territory.

There are a few inscriptions in this district belonging to this family, all of them coming from the Holalkere region. According to one of them,[159] the founder of the family was one Halappa, who is said to be a contemporary of Harihara (14th century). His son was Doddanna, 'whose son was Sangappa, whose son was Halaraja, whose sons were Siddarama and Doddanna.'

Haidar Ali and Tipu Sultan

The Sultans of Srirangapattana and the Wodeyars of Mysore.—It has been stated above that after the capitulation of Chitradurga, 20,000 Bedas were taken away to people the island of Srirangapattana. All the boys amongst these were converted and trained up as soldiers, forming what were called Chela battalions. A young Nair, who had been similarly taken from Malabar and forcibly converted to Islam with the name of Sheikh Ayaz, was appointed governor of Chitradurga. He was a handsome youth, and Haidar had formed a very exalted opinion of his merits, frequently upbraiding his own son Tipu for inferiority to Ayaz. When he was appointed governor of Chitradurga, Ayaz is said to have modestly pleaded his incompetency to hold that post, as he could neither read nor write and was consequently incapable of a civil charge. And it is to him and at this time that Haidar is said to have given his famous advice : 'Keep a *Korda* at your right hand and that will do you better service than pen and ink.'[160]

Henceforward little is heard of Chitradurga until the time of the attacks of Dhundia Wagh, immediately after the last Mysore war. Dhundia Wagh was a noted soldier of

Maratha descent, who had been imprisoned by Tipu, but who, taking advantage of the chaos at the capital after the fall of the latter, managed to escape, collected a body of horse, about 5,000 strong, and took possession of some forts in the Shimoga region. But the English started operations against him immediately. Two field detachments were directed against him. One of these, under Lt. Col. James Dalrymple, marched against Chitradurga and took it without opposition on the 6th July 1799. On the 15th of the same month, he attacked with the cavalry a body of Dhundia's men who had been attacking the region in the neighbourhood of Chitradurga and destroyed nearly the whole party, which is estimated to have consisted of about 250 horse and 400 foot.

Two inscriptions belonging to this period have been found in this district. Both dated 1784, were found on a tomb, north of Chitradurga. Engraved in Persian script, they record the erection of a tomb by order of Tipu Sultan for a holy man named Shah Ahmed.

Wodeyars

On the overthrow of Tipu Sultan's government and restoration of the ancient royal family of Mysore on the 30th June 1799, the Chitradurga region formed a part of the princely State of Mysore. Soon after the enthronement of Krishnaraja Wodeyar (III), Purnaiya was appointed by the Commissioners to be the Dewan of His Highness and Lt. Col. Close became, under the orders of the Governor-General, Resident at the Court of Mysore. Under the Partition Treaty of Mysore, dated 22nd June 1799, certain areas on the northern frontier of the then Mysore State were reserved for the Peshwa ; but as he did not accede to the treaty, these areas (Holalkere, Mayakonda and Harihara) which now form part of the Chitradurga district, were temporarily placed in charge of the Government of His Highness for purposes of management. Purnaiya managed them for the Company. These territories were later transferred to Mysore, in accordance with the Subsidiary Treaty, dated the 6th April 1801. Lord Clive, the then Governor of Madras, is said to have complimented Purnaiya, in acknowledging the accounts sent by him, on his 'prudent and just management of these districts and every part of Mysore.'[161]

With these changes there may be said to have been ushered into being an era of peace and prosperity, after a century of disquiet, in the history of this district. The west and south of the district, however, suffered to some extent in the insurrection of 1830. At this time it formed the Chitrakal Rayada Subayana or Faujdari.

There have been found two inscriptions in this district, refering to Krishnaraja Wodeyar. One of them, dated about 1800, gives the measurement of a Krishnaraja *haradari* as 5,280 yards.

The other dated 1820 records a grant made by the ruler to one Channa Basava Shastri. There are a few other records belonging to this period; but they all pertain to the grants made by private individuals.

The rest of the history of this district runs parallel to that of the entire erstwhile State of Mysore. There was all-round development of the district, particularly in the post-rendition period, *i.e.*, after 1881. The Marikanive works, started in August 1898 and completed in August 1907, proved a boon to the people of the district. It gave a fillip to wet cultivation among the people who were, so far, unaccustomed to it.

Administratively, the region has undergone changes many a time in the post-Paleyagar period. Under the British management, the Chitradurga Division included the Chitradurga and Tumkur districts, with head-quarters at Tumkur. In 1863, that Division was broken, by joining the Chitradurga district to the Nagar Division and the Tumkur district to the Nandidurga Division. In 1879, the Divisions were abolished, and in 1882 Chitradurga was reduced to a Sub-Division under Tumkur district. In 1886, the Chitradurga district was re-established, but Pavagada taluk remained a part of Tumkur district. After many changes in the structure of sub-taluks and taluks, the district administration settled itself with two revenue sub-divisions, nine taluks and 30 hoblis. When the States of the Indian Union were reorganised on linguistic lines in November 1956, the Chitradurga district formed part of the Bangalore Division under a Commissioner.

Political Awakening

Chitradurga district has always been responsive to new influences and upsurges in the several movements launched for political reforms. It was about the beginning of the century that a branch of the Brahmo Samaj was established in Bangalore which had its influence in the rest of the old Mysore State. Books in Kannada, dealing with the life and work of Raja Ram Mohan Roy and other reformers became popular. The birth of the Indian National Congress, in 1885, had profound influence in all parts of India and the princely State of Mysore was no exception. The State was influenced by this national reaction, as strongly as any other part of India and responded to the call. A large number of political institutions emerged and there was a remarkable outburst of literary activity in Kannada. The disintegration which the British had brought about of Karnataka produced its reaction and Kannadigas did not slacken their efforts till they secured unification of the several Kannada areas on a linguistic basis. A host of talented and earnest writers mirrored in their writings the aspirations of Kannadigas for an independent political life, free from foreign domination. Influenced by all these upsurges, the people of Karnataka woke up to move forward. The people in the princely State of Mysore wanted to associate themselves more

and more with the administration, though Mysore was more advanced than other parts having already a Representative Assembly and a Legislative Council, which became a forum for the demand of political reforms. Sri M. Venkatakrishnaiya was the foremost among those who wanted the State's political movement to maintain the same aspirations and tone as the movement in British India.

The coming of Mahatma Gandhi and his inculcation of a new nationalist outlook had their effect on the people. Already the sturdy spirit of patriotism aroused by Tilak was alive in Karnataka. The Kannadigas had no separate political entity, which would have been a spur to concerted action. This was realised and keenly felt by leaders from the early years of the century. The All-Karnataka Political Conference which assembled in Dharwar in 1920, under the presidentship of Shri V. P. Madhava Rao, a former Dewan of Mysore, included delegates from the then State of Mysore also. In order to create a sense of political and cultural unity among all the Kannadigas, it was felt that the Congress should recognise Karnataka as an entity and constitute it into a separate Congress province, before it became an administrative unit. At this stage, the princely State of Mysore was steadily treading the road to progress. There was a remarkable rise of political enthusiasm for carrying on Congress work after 1920, as the result of the formation of the new committee in Karnakata. After the annual session of the Indian National Congress in Belgaum in 1924, a number of political conferences were held in all parts of Karnataka, to instil in the minds of the people, the need for liberation from the foreign yoke. Karnataka responded to the call of the Father of the Nation in regard to many programmes of national activity. Many of the leading Congressmen of Mysore took part in the freedom movement launched by Gandhiji, though they were prohibited from carrying on political programmes in their own State. Political affairs in the State of Mysore were in a placid condition. The beneficent administration of a saintly ruler had brought to Mysore the flattering appellation of a model State. The holding of any political gathering by the subjects was looked upon as something strange. The first meeting of the Congress under the presidentship of Shri V. Manickavelu Mudaliar was held in Bangalore in 1928, when discussions were held for more popular relationship with the administration. The events after the visit of the Simon Commission and the Salt Satyagraha saw a new upsurge in different parts of Karnataka. Many events happened in Mysore also. The leaders in the State had identified themselves with the all-India movements. Indeed, among the students of the State, there was a widespread awareness of the cause which the Congress was fighting for. As soon as news of the Salt Satyagraha spread in the State, a batch of volunteers left to participate in it. The people in Mysore were in full sympathy with the freedom movements in other parts of

India and had gone in large numbers to participate in the political fight in other parts of Karnataka. The fight for responsible Government within the State took a serious turn when Mysoreans came to demand a fully democratic constitution with the Ruler as a constitutional head. As the agitation quickened, the attitude of the Government also stiffened. In the minds of some Mysore leaders, there were doubts about the correct attitude of the Indian National Congress towards political struggle in the State. These doubts were cleared by the Working Committee of the Congress at its meeting in Wardha in July 1935. The Congress, at that meeting, recognised that the people in the Indian States had an inherent right to Swaraj, no less than the people of British India. Accordingly, it declared in favour of the establishment of representative responsible Governments in the States and appealed to the Princes to establish such responsible Governments in their States. To agitate for responsible Government, the Mysore Congress took its birth and held its session at Shivapura in Mandya district in 1937. With the emergence of this separate political organisation in the State, the fight for achieving the goal of responsible Government took a new turn. The Mysore Congress held its annual session on the banks of the Tungabhadra in Harihar in 1940, presided over by Shri H. Siddaiya. The session was inaugurated by Dr. Rajendra Prasad.

Swadeshi movement

The people of Chitradurga did not lag behind in their sympathy and support towards political aspirations of the people in British India. On the evening of 29th December, 1931, a mammoth meeting was held in Chitradurga which was addressed by Shri Hardekar Manjappa. At this meeting Shri D. S. Mallappa of Tiptur spoke on the necessity of responsible Government in Mysore. The members of the *Khadi Vastralaya* at Davangere started propaganda work by distributing pamphlets and by means of writing on the walls. The public were requested to encourage only swadeshi articles. On the morning of 21st January 1932, Kasala Srinivasa Setty, Bellada Siddalingaiya and Sivagangaiya of the *Khadi Vastralaya* accompanied by volunteers visited several foreign cloth shops and requested the dealers not to sell foreign cloth. They came to an agreement with the cloth merchants, that the existing cloth should be kept back, and no fresh consignment of foreign cloth should be received. During March 1932, foreign cloth was collected and burnt at Davangere.

The district was in the grip of political activities in 1936-37. On 26th January 1937, the students of Chitradurga High School and Middle Schools went on strike and took the independence pledge. In the same year, Dr. N. S. Hardikar and Mrs. Umabai Coondapur, with some other leaders toured the Chitradurga district, enlisting support for the Congress cause. In the course of his lectures at Davangere and Molakalmuru in the second week of May 1937, Dr. Hardikar explained the aims and objects of

the Indian National Congress and said that the people of Mysore who were said to be free under the Maharaja were not really free and that His Highness was at the mercy of the British and so the State subjects were slaves doubly. He appealed to the people to join the Congress. In order to prevent his further tours in the district, the Government restrained his activities. The First Class Magistrate, Chitradurga, passed an order directing Dr. Hardikar to abstain from making any public speeches within the limits of the taluks of Chitradurga, Hosadurga, Challakere, Molakalmuru and Jagalur for a period of two months.

In August 1937, the Congress flag was hoisted in Chitradurga town by Shri S. Nijalingappa in the compound of Shri Jayadeva Hostel. On that day, a meeting was held in the premises of the *Khadi Vastralaya* under the chairmanship of Shri Nijalingappa, where resolutions were passed protesting against the repressive policy of the Government.

Satyagraha

From September to November 1939, the Mysore Congress launched a fierce struggle to achieve responsible Government. In accordance with the directions of the working committee of the Mysore Congress, a Satyagraha Camp was declared open in Chitradurga on 12th September, 1939. Picketing of toddy shops commenced from the next day. The picketing was very peaceful and orderly. These events were followed by cutting of forest trees at Turuvanur. Shri S. Nijalingappa, Shri Chandur, Shri S. Vasudeva Rao and Smt. Bellary Siddamma and Smt. Nagaratnamma proceeded from Chitradurga to Turuvanur to organise the Satyagraha and lead the volunteers. Shri Rajashekharaiya Hiremath, who was the first dictator, and four other volunteers from Turuvanur offered Satyagraha by cutting forest trees. Fifteen persons including Shri S. Nijalingappa were arrested and a case under I.P.C. 148, 149, 353, 447 and 426 was filed against them.

In the district, it was the lawyers who first undertook the work of opposing bureaucratic rule and tried to expose the hollowness of the claims of democratic administration of the Ruler. The Government arrested them and after a trial they were debarred from legal practice. Shri S. Nijalingappa and Shri M. Govinda Reddy, prominent lawyers in the district, were debarred from practice by virtue of a Mysore High Court Judgment delivered in 1940-41.

In the fight for responsible Government, the district had stood in the vanguard and earned the encomium of Indian leaders.

The mass struggle for the attainment of responsible Government in the State went on with unabated vigour from 1937 to 1947, with varied political activities and upsurges and culmina-

ted in the final struggle in 1947, after India attained independence. The demand of the Mysore State Congress for the immediate establishment of responsible Government found favour with all sections of the population. During the latter months of 1947, the members of the Mysore Representative Assembly submitted a memorandum to His Highness the Maharaja, asking the ruler to establish popular Government. The final struggle was launched in the first week of September 1947 and ended shortly afterwards, with the release of all Congressmen on 6th October 1947. On the 9th October, the Mysore Congress President met the Dewan, when an agreement was reached. Later on, on the 13th October, the Mysore Congress President and his colleagues in the Working Committee met the Maharaja, when a proclamation was issued ushering in popular rule in Mysore. On the 24th October 1947, Shri K. C. Reddy formed a Government with eight other ministers. As the Constitution of India was in the offing, the Mysore Constituent Assembly which was set up under the agreement, got itself converted into a legislative body. With the promulgation of the Indian Constitution, Mysore became a Part 'B' State with the Maharaja as the Rajpramukh. With the States' reorganisation in 1956, the State became a Governor's State.

ARCHAEOLOGY

Two places, namely Chandravalli and Brahmagiri, deserve to be studied in detail in connection with the pre-historic archaeology in the Chitradurga district.

Chandravalli

The valley of Chandravalli is situated immediately to the west of the fortified hill of Chitradurga. What led to the discovery of pre-historic and early historic sites in that valley was the story current among the people of the neighbourhood that an ancient city formerly flourished in the valley and that valuable articles could be picked up on the site by patient searches. Long back during the days of the British Commission Government, a number of lead coins were collected there in the course of digging up a drain to lead out the rain water, and were sent to the British Museum and elsewhere. Some of them were published by Prof. E. J. Rapson in the British Museum catalogue of the coins of the Andhras, etc.[162] Further, about sixty years ago, a mining engineer prospecting for minerals in the area picked up a few coins and wrote about them to the newspapers, calling the attention of the Director-General of Archaeology. This officer asked the Mysore Government for more information on this subject, as a result of which R. Narasimhachar, who was then the head of the Archaeological Department of the Government of Mysore, visited the spot, sank eight small pits in a part of the area and published a few of the antiquities he was able to collect, in the annual report of the Mysore Government Archaeological Department for the year 1909.[163] He not only confirmed the

existence of an ancient town on that site, but also urged that a systematic and scientific excavation should be carried out at the place by a person properly trained for the work.

The matter, however, remained at this stage for about twenty years. Then, when the University of Mysore took over charge of the Mysore Government Archaeological Department in 1922, it was anxious to give that department a new orientation. It was decided to introduce the most up-to-date methods of research in the department and accordingly a member of the History Department was deputed to learn up-to-date research methods in archaeology at the University of London and at the excavation camps of Egypt and elsewhere under scholars like Prof. Flinders Petrie, Prof. E. A. Gardner and others. On his return to Mysore in 1929, plans for carrying on excavation in various parts of the State were discussed and the proposal to start work at Chandravalli was approved by the Government of Mysore. Accordingly Dr. M. H. Krishna, the then Director of Archaeological Researches in Mysore, took up the work which was planned to be carried out in four stages—a detailed survey of the site, sinking of a few trial pits and trenches as the area was found to be large, selection and scientific excavation of a promising area in the site and study of the finds and reconstruction of history on the basis of the evidence thus collected. The results produced were quite satisfactory and served as clues for further work. Among the data obtained, a few, having particular bearing on the pre-history and early history of the place, may be mentioned here: Lead coins belonging to the Satavahanas, Roman silver coins and ornaments of gold, silver and copper were picked up near the 'tiger rock' and in the new water course. Walls constructed of huge ancient bricks[164] were faintly visible here and there in cuttings, while painted and polished pottery was quite common. These data and the rock inscription of Mayurasharma Kadamba together reveal the existence, in the locality, of a prosperous town in the Satavahana and early Kadamba periods. The earlier forms of painted pottery and the evidences of iron-smelting in the caves point towards there being a possible pre-historic iron age. The neoliths collected in the water courses and in the caves of Neralagondi and Baralagondi suggest the existence of man in the Chandravalli valley during the neolithic times. 'It was thus seen that the story of Chandravalli as might possibly be recovered in the excavations would pertain not merely to a particular century but a vast vista of time extending over the last three milleniums or even more.' [165]

Further excavations were carried on in the year 1939-40. Some of the old excavations were extended and a few new pits were sunk, with the object of finding corroboration for the theories formed already about the Satavahana town. Lower layers were reached in several places and information was gathered about

the existence of earlier layers with the characteristics of pre-Satavahana pottery. Several new coins, seals, figurines and other antiquities were also unearthed, valuable information being obtained about the political and cultural conditions of the buried town.

Finally, three further trial-pits were dug into the site in 1947 'with a view to adding precision to our knowledge of this culture', and these have added to the evidence already obtained by previous excavations.

So far as the size of this Satavahana town is concerned, an examination of the sides of the two water courses which traverse the valley from south to north indicates that the main body of the ancient town was some 800 yards long in that direction and the configuration of the valley suggests that it may have had an approximately similar width. In point of time, though evidences of occupation extend right from the neolithic period to the middle ages, the main phase appears to have coincided with the Satavahana regime of the first and the second centuries A.D.

Brahmagiri

Brahmagiri has earned a place on the archaeological map of India since as early as 1892 when B. Lewis Rice made the famous discovery of Ashoka's edicts round about this place. This was such an important discovery that the event was described by one of the highest European authorities as forming an epoch in Indian archaeology. For, though Ashoka's edicts had been found inscribed on rocks in various parts of northern India, the farthest points in the South in which they were known to occur were at Girnar in Saurashtra and Jaugada in the Ganjam district. This discovery therefore revealed that the Maurya empire extended at least upto Chitradurga district.

The Ashoka inscriptions discovered by Rice were three in number situated on hills on the right and left banks of the Janagahalla or Sanna Hagari river where it crosses the Molakalmuru taluk from west to east. The best preserved is the Brahmagiri inscription, engraved on the top of a great boulder of gneiss at the north-west of the hill of that name, at a point called *Ganjigunte Mule*. This boulder was well-known in that area as the *Aksharada Gundu* or 'letter-rock' and was supposed to have medicinal virtues. The inscription, which is cut on the undressed horizontal surface of the rock, consists of thirteen more or less irregular lines covering a space of 15′ 6″ by 11′ 6″. A few letters at the beginning of the 6th and 7th lines have been defaced owing to the collection of water in a depression in the stone. But, with the exception of these and a few other letters, the remainder is generally in good preservation. Erections have now been put up over this and other inscriptions of Ashoka by the Government of Mysore The second

inscription is less than a mile to the west of the above, and close to Siddapura, on a ledge, facing south, some way up a rocky hill called *Yemme Tammana Gundu*. It consists of twenty-two lines covering a space of 13′ 6″ by 8′ and is engraved in lines of varying length on the sloping surface of the rock. Considerable portions of this inscription have been defaced, as the shady ledge on which the inscription is cut formed a favourite shelter for goats and cattle. The third inscription is on the western summit of the Jatinga-Rameshwara hill, about three miles north-west of Brahmagiri. The inscription is cut on a very irregular and slanting horizontal surface of rock, facing north-east, which has been quarried at some period. The floor on which the inscription is cut is immediately in front of the stairs leading upto the Jatinga Rameshwara temple. Therefore, naturally all the pilgrims to the shrine used to walk right over the inscription and this must have gone on for many centuries. Moreover, owing to the convenient shadow of an overhanging boulder, the site of the epigraph was the favourite resort of the bangle-sellers at the annual festival. Hence the rock is called the *Balegara Gundu* or "bangle-sellers' rock". One can still see a number of holes punched in different parts of the rock, which were perhaps meant to hold the poles of the booths or tents erected at the annual fairs. For these reasons, the inscription has been greatly defaced, so much so that it is now difficult to say exactly where it begins and where it ends. So far as it can be made out it consists of about twenty-eight lines, covering a space of 17 feet 6 inches by 6 feet 6 inches.

All the three inscriptions are engraved in Brahmi characters and expressed in Prakrit language. But a remarkable exception in the matter of script is that the last word in each, which expresses the profession of the engraver, has been cut in Kharosti characters, written from right to left, which are found only in the extreme north-west of the Punjab. What this means—whether that the scribe was a northerner transferred to the south for engraving these inscriptions as suggested by Vincent Smith[106] and B. L. Rice[107] or that he was a southerner who has done so 'only to show off his knowledge of the Kharosti script, which he may have acquired not necessarily in the north but even in the capital city, where there must have been many possessing a knowledge of the script,' as suggested by N P. Chakravarti[108] —cannot be made out now definitely.

So far as the text of the inscriptions is concerned it is common to all the three, with only minor variations. The main object of the edicts is to exhort all classes of people to greater effort in pious duties and in doing so the king adduces his own example.

Ishila

The above inscriptions record the transmission of the royal edict from the officers of Suvarnagiri to those of Ishila. Out of those two, the former town is believed to have been the capital

of the Deccan province of the Mauryan empire, whereas the latter was probably the headquarters of a local division. The question naturally arose as to where this Ishila was situated. Since the three inscriptions described above are close to each other, forming almost a triangle with a base of about three miles and a median of about half a mile, it was clear that a search for the town site had to be made in this neighbourhood. Accordingly, though no structures or other monuments were visible on the surface, a careful study of the ground went to show that an extensive town of about the Mauryan times had flourished in the neighbourhood of the Brahmagiri inscription.

The country around Brahmagiri now has the appearance of a neglected corner of human activity, far removed from civilization. But a survey of the hill and the neighbourhood makes it clear that it had its own periods of prosperity, two of which at least are well-evidenced. Seven centuries ago there was the prosperous town of Haneya flourishing in the fields to the west of the hill. The *Akka-thangi temple*, the *Pagadesalu* hill temple, the Jain temple, the fort-walls near the foot of the hills, the steps leading from the fields to the hill and the Trishankeshwara and the Bhagyalakshmi temples, the basements of two palatial buildings and the Hulikunte tank on the hill are all said to have belonged to this town. There is also an inscription of the Hoysala king Vira Ballala II (c A.D. 1190) who proudly claims that he conquered the hill-fort of Haneya and founded the city of 'Vijayanagiri'. The hill appears to have been once again converted into a fortification in the late Vijayanagara days as is seen from the remains of fort-walls on the hill.

But Ishila of the Mauryas was evidently different from the Hoysala town of Haneya. A close survey of the ground shows that a much older town, apparently Ishila, stretched on either side of the Brahmagiri inscription between the group of cromlechs and slopes of the hills. It was bounded on the east by the Chaudeshwari tank and the slopes of the Roppa hillock, on the north by the river Hagari, on the west by *Yemme Tammana Gundu* and the *Akkathangi* tank and on the south by the hill with its caves and rocky platforms bearing clear evidence of having been inhabited by pre-historic man.

Chromlechs

The most conspicuous objects appearing on the surface in this area are the cromlechs, which abound near both the eastern and the western extremities. They appear to be of a variety of sizes and shapes. Sometimes, the mouth of a pot is visible or the four slabs of a small stone-box or cist are seen on the ground. Some of these cists are as big as six feet long and five feet broad, their slabs being placed swastika-wise, one end of each slab projecting beyond the square. Some of these cists are covered by large heavy slabs about 8 feet in diameter and 9 inches or more in

thickness. A majority of the cists have no dolmens. Sometimes around the cist or dolmen, small, roundish natural boulders, about 2 cubic feet in size, are placed forming a ring of stones or a cromlech. Occasionally, the ring is large having a diameter of about 30 feet lined on the inside by a rubble structure, the inner face of which has another ring of stones. Though hundreds of these cromlechs have been disturbed by the agriculturists or rifled by the curious, there were hundreds more yet intact until 1947 when many of them were opened and examined by the Archaeological Survey of India in collaboration with the Archaeological Department of Mysore State.[169] The variety of structures, their number and extent suggest that they must have been constructed during a long period stretching over hundreds of years. It is now definitely known that these structures are burial-chambers, stretching back to pre-historic times. But their close association with the Mauryan town, and the fact that they bear the name '*Mauriyara mane*' or the houses of the Mauryas among the local people have been held by some to indicate that some of them perhaps came into existence in the Mauryan period. According to Wheeler, this megalithic culture of Mysore is intrusive in nature and it arrived in this area from the south or south-west round about 200 B.C.[170]

There are a number of vestiges of human habitations on either side of the nose of the hill, where scores of rubble stone structures are visible in the ground. These appear to be the foundations or parts of the walls of small buildings whose mud walls have disappeared. These structures generally have their back to the hill and they are in lines that run roughly parallel to the hill-side, their general orientation being from east to west.

The fields around are strewn about thickly with potsherds, brickbats, stone-rubble, neolithic implements, etc. Bricks were rare, though not altogether absent. It has been surmised that this town used stones for the foundations even of huts.

Though not in such abundance as in Chandravalli, iron slag pieces were occasionally collected on this site also. A few copper objects also occurred here and there. The discovery of a few crucibles further pointed to the existence of metal smithy.

The site of Ishila, it is said, is one of the ideal fields for the collection and study of pottery. Though very few fully preserved pots were found, a preliminary study of the surface yielded an extra-ordinary variety of potsherds. The painting on pottery appears to be a note-worthy feature of the ceramic-ware occurring at Ishila. Connected with the pots, but distinct as a class of earthen-ware, are bricks and tiles. Pieces of two different kinds of tiles were found: the roughly shaped Mangalore tile pattern with two holes and the flat round-edged type.

The following are the strata suggested by a surface-study of Ishila. 171 (1) Chalukya-Hoysala; (2) a Mauryan town with perhaps a pre-Mauryan commencement and early Satavahana ending; (3) a pre-Mauryan town of the iron age; (4) a neolithic settlement and (5) a pigmy flint culture. Though the total length of the period covered by the finds would be several thousand years, the period of the greatest prosperity of the place appears to have been in the period of Ashoka.

Excavations

In 1931, trial soundings in one or two places revealed the existence of earlier strata below the Mauryan town reaching back to the prehistoric times; but further work was not conducted owing to the general suspension of all excavations. The work was recommenced in 1939, when as many as eight pits and trenches were sunk and their yields recorded with the help of photographs and graphs. Among the important pieces of information collected may be mentioned the following: the methods of the disposal of the dead, funerary pottery and customs, the discovery of an apsidal brick building—probably a Buddhist Chaitya—the discovery of several strata of a long-lived town with upper layers assignable to the Mauryan period and the lower ones stretching back into the pre-historic period, the discovery of varied ceramic-ware including red-ware, red and brown ornamented ware, polished black ware, ornamented chocolate coloured ware, varied black and red ware, with incised ornaments and stone and brick foundations of houses, etc. The discovery of this definitely pre-historic town site was of utmost importance for our knowledge of South Indian history, since the latter was till then supposed to begin with the Mauryan period. Excavations have revealed, at least in one of the pits, as many as nine different floors showing that the town must have flourished for several centuries. It is possible that the period of Mauryan supremacy was only the last or the penultimate period in the history of the town which may have decayed and disappeared somewhere about 200 B.C. when the supremacy over the Deccan passed from the Mauryan to the Satavahana hands. Quite possibly Ishila was a frontier town which decayed in prosperity just when Chandravalli and other places grew in wealth and splendour. But if Ishila decayed in the early Satavahana days having had a more prosperous period during the Mauryan and pre-Mauryan rule as has been made clear by the excavations, its life must have begun at least a few centuries before. Assuming that ordinary houses are rebuilt once in about 50 years, it has been surmised that the lowermost levels of the town site reached near '*Gare Gundu*' take us back to more or less the 8th century B.C., if not earlier.

During May 1942 a pit was systematically excavated right from the surface to the virgin soil, making a careful stratigraphical study of the finds with the help of photographs and drawings. Over 3,000 antiquities were discovered during the excavation and several strata of a long occupied site were noted. The surface

finds were more or less mixed up with later ones, the latest in date being a copper coin of the Bijapur dynasty. The layer below this, corresponding to about 9″ below the surface level, yielded a gold Chalukya coin of the Bhujabala and lion type. Next to the Chalukyan layer, came another layer which yielded varied ceramic ware, as in previous years, and stone foundations of buildings. Possibly the site was in possession of the Satavahanas during the early centuries of the Christian era as evidenced by the find of a stray lead coin of the elephant type. During the course of excavation, however, no Satavahana coins, corresponding to the types found at Chandravalli, were discovered. But at a depth of about 2½ feet below the surface level, a medium-sized coin was found, assignable to about 200 B.C. Below this coin level, were noted several layers giving varied types of pottery and pieces of iron objects upto a depth of about 8 feet below the surface. Further down no metallic object or fragment was found, though polished pottery continued to be discovered. One or two specimens suggested foreign influence and were painted with a red slip and ornamented in dark violet with wave designs, being outwardly somewhat similar to one of the Indus Valley pottery. Below the iron age layer, occurred the neolithic layer; in one or two places on this layer the neolithic finds were mixed with microlithic finds. Further down came the microlithic layer proper, which was found to be very thick at Brahmagiri, sometimes being more than 5 ft. in thickness. Throughout this layer occurred black burnished ware and also mica-laden pottery. Hundreds of microliths were picked up from this layer, among them being paring knives, saws, scrapers, borers, arrowheads, etc., all very hard and sharp. The materials used were chert, chalcedony, flint or quartz. Microliths had no doubt been collected in various parts of India; but a regular microlithic settlement definitely underlying and leading on to a neolithic stratum was really an interesting find. This microlithic culture, which is termed as 'Roppa Culture' after the nearest village, has been found to be similar to the Campiguian Culture of France, which has been assigned by European archaeologists to about 8000 or 6000 B.C.

Foreign Connections

Two particular types of pottery found in the lower levels at Brahmagiri deserve special mention as they suggest some foreign influence. One of these is painted with a red slip and ornamented in dark violet with plant and wave designs and is outwardly remarkably similar to some Indus Valley pottery, though unlike it in having a black cone inside the walls. The other has chequered patterns in black over a buff background as in some of the third millenium B.C. pottery of Sindh, Sumer and Crete. These two types are unlike the usual painted ware found at Chandravalli and other places in the Deccan and suggest foreign influence. As we know that the Indus Valley civilization used gold, jade and other materials which were probably imported from the Deccan,

we are justified in looking out for possible connections between Sindh and Mysore in prehistoric times.

Finally, excavations were carried out at Brahmagiri in May 1947 by the Archaeological Survey of India in collaboration with the Archaeological Department of Mysore State with the object of correlating the local megalithic culture with the culture or successive cultures of an adjacent urban site which had already produced evidence of a definable chronological datum-line. It is not the details of these excavations but the conclusions arrived at as a result of them that are important from our point of view. R.E.M. Wheeler, who does not agree with the provisional chronology of Dr. M. H. Krishna, the then Director of Archaeology in Mysore, as detailed above, suggests the following chronology and culture sequence :

"I. *Brahmagiri Stone Axe Culture.*—Early first millenium B.C. (?) to the beginning of the second century B.C., continuing as a dwindling sub-culture through most of the succeeding megalithic phase.

II. *Megalithic Culture.*—After c. 200 B.C. to the middle of the first century A.D., overlapping the Andhra culture.

III. *Andhra.*—About the middle of the first century A.D. to the third century."[172]

Some of the more important monuments and remains of archaeological interest in the district are as follows :— **Monuments**

The picturesque hill of Chitradurga was well defended and has in its centre a wide space in which formerly existed the old town. Half a dozen peaks, mostly castellated, overlooked the hill town and served as its watch-towers. A hill so well placed from the military point of view naturally attracted the attention of kings and soldiers. Historical inscriptions belonging to all the periods have been found in the neighbourhood.

The earliest monuments now existing on the hill appear to be the inner shrines of a series of Ishwara temples, the lingas of which have been installed in shallow caves or rock-shelters in various parts of the hill. The sanctums of the Hidimbeshwara, Siddheshwara and Phalguneshwara temples and also of the Ekanatheshwara temple are composed of such caves. To the same period belong the Paradeshappa's cave near *Ankli Matha* and the caves on the hill called *Dhavalappana Gudda*. The age of most of these goes back to the 9th century A.D. or earlier. The most famous of these early temples is that of Hidimbeshwara, which is often mentioned in the inscriptions.

Later, stone *Shikharas* of the Chalukyan type, square in plan and with horizontal lines of light and shade, came to be set up on the rocks and boulders overhanging the shrines. *Mantapas* or pillared halls were also added to these temples with small open porches in front. A typical structure of this kind is the Phalguneshwara temple, the *mantapa* of which was constructed in 1260 A.D. A noteworthy feature in the construction of these monuments is that though they belong to the Hoysala period and possess many of the Hoysala features, they are mostly built of granite and have little evidence of the finely chiselled soap and pot-stone work so characteristic of the later Chalukyan and Hoysala styles of architecture. But that these stones were not totally unknown can be seen from the existence of a finely ornamented small Basava shrine to the left of the main entrance of the Siddheshwara temple and some parts of some other later structures.

Later still under the Vijayanagara kings, the pious local governors naturally added to the existing shrines. The stone *gopura* and the swing *thorana* belonging to the Siddeshwara temple (1356 A.D.) and the tower of the Hidimbeshwara temple are undoubtedly their works.

Of course, the hill reached the period of its highest prosperity under the Nayakas of the Kamageti line. To their days should be attributed the majority of the old monuments existing on the hill and in the town below. The Nayakas not only repaired the old temples, embellishing the stone structures with brick and plaster work, but also constructed new stone buildings in the late Vijayanagara style. To this period may be assigned the cloisters and the compound walls of the Siddheshwara temple in the courtyard of which the Nayakas were being crowned, parts of the Gopalakrishna temple, the *mantapa*, the monolithic pillar and the stone *thorana* of the Ekanatheshwara temple, the greater part of the fortifications, the military works like watch-towers, granaries and powder magazines and the temples of Uchangiyamma and other deities in the town. There were also numerous large buildings of sun-dried bricks and earth like the Nayakas' palace, now in ruins. A remarkable series of reservoirs and water works by which all the rain water falling on the hills was collected and the overflow was led from pond to pond appears to have been to a great extent the work of the Nayakas. For instance, the overflow of water was led from the little tanks on Lal-Bateri to the *Gopalaswami* Honda and thence through the *Akka-thangiyara Honda* to the *Sinira Honda*, and from there to the *Sante Honda*. To this period also belong many of the structures on the Dhavalappana Gudda.

Even after its capture by Haidar Ali in 1779, the hill continued to be an important place owing to its military strength and situation. Tipu built a palace and a mosque in the town below,

added arched frontages to some of the doorways of the fort and stationed his troops inside the fort.

Now coming to the fortifications, which are a remarkable series of works that made the place well-nigh impregnable, they form the most striking feature of the ancient monuments of the Chitradurga hill. To the old Hindu walls of the Vijayanagara period, subsequent additions and improvements were made by both the Nayaka kings and the Sultans of Mysore with the help of French engineers. Battlements and bastions were added, moats were dug and hill batteries were set up, provided with magazines and watch-towers. Proceeding up the hill from the east towards the ruined palace, we see five large gateways each leading through a stone wall. The first gate, probably built during the last days of the Vijayanagara kingdom, is ornamented with sculptures of *Ganda-bherunda*, Ganesha and other deities. The fort-wall on either side, about 25 feet in height, is built of large finely dressed blocks of granite. At the south end of the elevated ground to the west of the wall is a cave temple with a headless seated *Shakti* figure and near this temple is the powder factory with a pit containing four large grinding stones 5 feet in diameter and connected by toothed wheels. Passing by a stone trough called *Yenne Kola* or oil-tank, we reach the second and third gateways which have nothing remarkable. The fourth gateway, belonging to the fourth fort-wall which is a strong structure of about 25 feet in height, is perhaps the best of the series of gateways, having ornamented pillars and walls containing a large number of relief figures. A few yards higher up and near a small Ganesha temple, there are two stone buildings, one of them being roofless and the other intact and strongly built. The small entrance, the low floor and the heavy roof of the latter suggest that it was a powder magazine, though locally it is supposed to be a *garadi-mane* or gymnasium. The fifth gateway which is supported on the south by another large magazine leads to the area in which the temples and other buildings are situated.

Chandravalli Valley

The picturesque Chandravalli valley is situated to the west of the Chitradurga hill. It is roughly triangular in shape with Chitradurga and Kirabanakallu hills forming the two sides and a broken line formed by the high Chola-gudda as the base. Of the three entrances to the valley, the most beautiful is the Hulegondi gorge on the south lying between the south-western corner of the Chitradurga hill and the hill on which stands the *Ankli Matha*. This valley, on account of its coolness and unique situation, receives both the south-west and the north-east monsoon rains and thus affords an abundant supply of water. The idea of putting up a dam across this valley and storing the rain water must have occurred to many people in the past. As an evidence of this, we see the breached ruins of three or four ancient dams, one of which was, perhaps, that constructed by Mayurasharma, the

founder of the Kadamba dynasty, in the middle of the 3rd century A.D.[173]

Just by the side of the inscription of Mayurasharma is the small temple of Bhairaveshvara, dating probably from the Hoysala period. The masonry *Sikhara* is a modern addition ; but the rest of the temple is certainly much older. In the *garbhagriha* of the temple stands a naked image of Bhairava, with the characteristic scorpion on the pedestal and the hands holding a sword and a severed head : the blood dripping from the head is being licked by a dog and the Bhringi attendants are dancing to music on either side. The temple consists of a *garbhagriha*, a *navaranga*, a small room to the north of the latter containing an image of Dakshinamurthi, and a small porch supported by four octagonal pillars in the place of the *mukhamantapa*. Behind the temple in a rock-shelter is an inscription of 1074 A.D., evidently much older than the temple.

A pathway running up the hill leads to a platform half way up where a small entrance leads to a large cave formed under a huge triangular boulder. There are about 10 lingas in the cave, some of which are said to have been set up by the Pandavas. There is also, in the cave, a large stone slab containing Perumale-Dannayaka's grant to the five lingas, dated 1286 A.D.

To the right side of this cave is a large pillared court known as the *Ankli Matha* where formerly a Veerashaiva guru used to live with some followers. Among the rocks behind the temple are a number of caves of different sizes, which have been adapted for human dwelling since long. The various apartments like the bed-rooms, kitchens, store-rooms and granaries which can be distinguished among these show the prosperity of the *Ankli Matha* in the last century.

The most interesting of the caves are the subterranean series to which a flight of steps leads down from the *Ankli Matha*. This group, which is known as Paradeshappa's caves, is formed by about seven caves of different sizes hidden in the body of the hill. It is said that about two or three centuries ago, a Veerashaiva hermit named Paradeshappa lived here. These subterranean caves and the series above must have been existing for many thousands of years. There is, however, nothing to tell us about their antiquity.

The hill-slopes neighbouring the various *gondis*, Hulegondi, Basavanagondi and Neralagondi, are generally formed of boulders, most of which appear to have rolled down in large numbers from the rocky tops of the hill. Among these boulders there have been formed numerous winding caves and grottoes, some of which are several hundred feet long running a considerable distance into

the side of the hill. On entering some of these caves, it was found that they were strewn about with bones mostly of cattle, obviously those dragged in and eaten by generations of wild beasts. In some of the larger caves of Baralagondi, potsherds and brick-bats lie about on the ground, probably brought down by rain water from the slopes above. The interesting objects noticed in some of these caves, however, were heaps of ashes with fragments of pottery crucibles, bellow-protectors, iron-ore and iron slag pieces strewn about in large numbers, proving that they were the furnaces, foundries and work-shops of prehistoric or at least ancient vulcans. Above Baralagondi at a height of about 100 feet from the ground is a large earthen terrace with numerous brick foundations. By the side of the pathway to the terrace were seen some rock-cut mortars and on a rock to the north of the terrace and in a cave to the south-west, grooves were noticed so shaped and polished that they could have been formed only by rubbing against them hard objects like stone weapons. These hill slopes and caves were evidently important places both in the prehistoric and historic periods.

In the centre of the Chandravalli valley there is a low rocky hill, which must have played a familiar part when the valley was an inhabited town. When a careful search was made among its rocks, there was found a boulder, half-buried and bush-covered, with a colossal tiger, about 13 feet in length, engraved on it. Its legs are peculiarly bent and striped; its body is filled with a lattice-like chequered pattern; its whiskers stand out prominently in front of the face; it has certainly an ancient look. Its existence was unknown even to the local people and its exact significance is not known.

A characteristic feature of the cultivated land between the Anjaneya temple on this hillock and the *Ankli Matha* was the prolific occurrence of potsherds and iron slag. A considerable number of the potsherds found here showed similarities with the prehistoric pottery of South India.

Architecture and Sculpture

From the point of view of architecture and sculpture, the most important temple in the district is that of Harihareshwara at Harihar. It is a temple built in the Chalukyan style in 1224 A.D. by Polalva, a general of the Hoysala king Narasimha II. The temple consists of a *garbhagriha*, a *sukanasi*, a *navaranga* and a *mukhamantapa*. The image of Harihara, which is about 4 feet high, stands without any *Prabhavali*, its left half representing Vishnu with the Vaishnava attributes, the discus and the conch in the hands, and the right half Shiva with Shaiva attributes, the trident and rosary. The head wears a crown on the left and matted hair with a crescent on the right. The pillars of the *navaranga* are well-executed. The ceilings though flat, are neatly and delicately carved with rows of lotuses, the central one being

beautifully sculptured with fine figures of Ashtadikpalakas. The *mukhamantapa* is a grand piece of architecture with three entrances and a high verandah running all-round. There are beautiful friezes of fine scroll-work and of animals like elephants, horses and camels with riders in different parts of the temple. The *garbhagriha* has a tower built of brick and mortar and three ornamental niches on the outer walls in the three directions with pairs of elephants at the sides. There are two *mahadwaras*, one opposite to the east entrance and the other opposite to the south porch of the *navaranga*. A word about the Sri or Lakshmi represented on the lintel of the doorway of this temple seems specially deserved. She is a microscopically small figure. The lotus flower on which she is barely visible is delicately indicated. The lotus flowers in the hands are hardly more visible. And as for the two elephants, one on either side, they can only be recognised by their partially visible heads and raised trunks. The extra-ordinary skill shown in the portrayal of this goddess here is indicative of the high standard the Hoysala artists had reached about this time.

Of the other temples, the Ishwara temples at Anekonda, Nandigudi and Nanditavare are notable for their exquisite carvings on their pillars and ceilings. In addition to these, at least a mention must be made here of the beautiful lamp-pillars attached to the temples of Harihareshwara of Harihara and Therumalleshwara at Hiriyur. The former, square and not round in form as usual, though entirely free from figure sculpture, is said to produce a strikingly effective appearance when lit because of the arrangement of the pairs of lamps, which alternately project forward and recede backward. The latter, about 45 feet in height and placed on a high pedestal, has a pavilion at the top enshrining an image of a bull and eight lamps in the form of huge iron cups, each capable of holding ten seers of oil.

Of the Lingayat *Mathas*, of which there are many in the district, presenting a combination of the Hindu and Saracenic schools of architecture, the one at Yela-hole on the Tungabhadra in this district, a fine and well-built structure with simple but good ornamentation, is a good example. As an example of Muslim architecture, Tipu's Mahal at Chitradurga appears to have been an imposing, though plain, structure. It is in a ruined state now; the ceiling of the inner hall has tumbled down, but the lofty pillars are still standing indicating the nature of the building. The pillars are plain, unlike the carved ones in Tipu's palace at Bangalore. The upper storey has a few plain looking rooms.

NOTES ON CHAPTER II

1. *Mysore Inscriptions*, p. 251.
2. Lewis Rice : *Mysore*, Vol. II, p. 427
3. In all probability this legend means that Parikshita met his death at the hands of a Naga tribe and that his son, Janamejaya, exterminated the Nagas in revenge.
4. Pargiter : *Ancient Indian Historical Tradition*, p. 291, note 12 .
5. *Ibid*, p. 13.
6. *Ibid*, p. 29 .
7. *Encyclopaedia of Religion and Ethics*, Vol. II, pp. 157–159
8. D. R. Bhandarkar : *Some Aspects of Ancient Indian Culture*, p. 32
9. Sundara Kanda
10. *Epigraphia Carnatica*, Vol. VII, Shikaripur 225
11. *Ibid*, Shikaripur 236.
12. K. A. Nilakanta Sastri : *A History of South India*, p. 80
13. S. K. Aiyangar : *Beginnings of South Indian History*, p. 81
14. *Journal of the Bihar and Orissa Research Society*, II (1916) p. 80 and note.
15. N. P. Chakravarti : *Ancient India*, No. 4, p. 17
16. *The Age of Imperial Unity*, p. 61.
17. Lewis Rice : *Mysore and Coorg from Inscriptions*, pp. 3–4
18. *Epigraphia Carnatica*, Vol. XI, Molakalmuru Nos. 14, 21 and 34.
19. English translations of these have also been published by Dr. Buhler, in *Epigraphia Indica* III.
20. For details, see the Section on Archaeology
21. C. f. *Raichur District Gazetteer*
22. For details, see the Section on Archaeology
23. Quoted in Mysore Gazetteer (1930), Vol. II, Part II p. 484
24. Vide *The Age of Imperial Unity*, pp. 90–91
25. S. Srikantha Sastri : *Maisuru Rajya*, p. 15.

25(a) Andhra-patha is also another place suggested by some scholars. Different theories on this subject have been referred to by H. Ray Choudhuri in his *Political History of Ancient India*, pp. 409–414.

26. *The Age of Imperial Unity*, p. 192
27. *Excavations at Chandravalli*, pp. 22 and 24. One lead coin found at Brahmagiri is said to be a Satavahana coin assignable to about 200 B. C. (*Annual Report of the Mysore Archaeological Department* for the year 1942, p. 104).
28. Of Vinhukada Chutukulananda Satakanni (*Epigraphia Carnatica*, Vol. VII, Shikaripur 263).
29. Of the same king as in 28 above. (*Indian Antiquary*, Vol. XIV, p. 33)
30. For further details, see *Annual Report of the Mysore Archaeological Department* for the car 1929, pp. 50–60.

30(a) But some scholars doubt the genuineness of this record vide *The Classical Age*, p. 272.

31. *Epigraphia Carnatica*, Vol. XI—Davangere 161.
32. Lewis Rice : *Mysore*, Vol. II, p. 499. But Krishnavarman, the Kadamba ruler referred to in this record, has been placed about 450–475 A. D. See Nilakanta Sastri : *A History of South India*, p. 106. R. Sathianathier : Chapter on 'Dynasties of South India' in *The Classical Age*, p. 273. In the Pallava geneology, the names answering this period are Simhavarman I (436–460) and Skandavarman III (460–480). In fact, the name of the Pallava ruler Nanakkasa is not at all known otherwise than through this record.
33. The title of the family had by this time been changed from Sharman, indicating a Brahmin, to Varman, indicating a Kshatriya. It was first

changed by Kangavarman (also read as Skanda-varman), son of Mayura-sharman.

34. *Mysore Gazetteer*, 1930, Vol. II, Part II. p. 704
35. K. A. Nilakanta Sastri : *A History of South India*, p. 145
36. Davangere 161.
37. The existing Nonabas are said to represent the subjects of that ancient Nolambavadi kingdom.
38. *Epigraphia Carnatica*, Vol. XI, Challakere 33 and 34.
39. The Nolambas claim to be Pallavas, though their exact relationship is not yet clearly established. Some scholars prefer to call this line of kings as Nolamba-Pallava to distinguish them from the Pallavas. The geneology of the line is given in the Hemavati pillar inscription. (*Epigraphia Carnatica*, Vol. XII, Sira 28). They are described as belonging to Isvara-vamsha and as descended from Trinayana through Pallava, a king of Kanchi. The first named king is Mangala or Nolambadhiraja and his son was Simhapota of the Challakere records. In the beginning, the Nolambas were the feudatories of the Gangas of Southern Mysore ; but when the latter were defeated and their king imprisoned by the Rashtrakutas under Govinda II, the Nolambas seem to have transferred their allegiance to the Rashtrakutas.
40. *Epigraphia Carnatica*, Vol. XI, Challakere 5, 7 and 8.
41. *Ibid.* Davangere 17.
42. *Ibid.* Jagalur 19.
43. *Ibid.* Hiriyur 33.
44. *Ibid.* Chitradurga 62.
45. *Ibid.* Jagalur 29.
46. *Ibid.* Chitradurga 76 and 77.
47. *Eigraphia Indica*, Vol. IV, p. 289, Vol. V, p. 191
48. *Epigraphia Carnatica*, Vol. XI, Holalkere 23.
49. *Ibid.* Holalkere 30.
50. *Ibid.* Holalkere 23.
51. *Ibid.* Chitradurga 50
52. *Ibid.* Chitradurga 74
53. *Ibid.* Davangere 152
54. *Ibid.* Holalkere 85
55. *Ibid.* Vol. VIII, Sorab 445
56. *Ibid.* Vol. XI, Hiriyur 1
57. *Ibid.* Vol. X, Mulbagal 122.
58. *Ibid.* Mulbagal 208 and Chintamani 118
59. *Epigraphia Carnatica*, Vol. VII, Shikaripur 136.
60. *Ibid.* Vol. XI. Challakere 21 and 22
61. *Ibid.* Davangere 71.
62. *Ibid.* Davangere 126.
63. *Ibid.* Davangere 159.
64. *Ibid.* Davangere 124.
65. *Ibid.* Holalkere 65 and Jagalur 10.
66. *Mysore Gazetteer* 1930, Vol. II, Part II, p. 581-82.
67. *Epigraphia Carnatica*, Vol. XI, Chitradurga 47.
68. *Ibid.* Molakalmuru 28 and Chitradurga 82.
69. *Ibid.* Davangere 113.
70. *Ibid.* Chitradurga 23.
71. A number of inscriptions in this district, e.g., Davangere 5, 39, 40, 41 and Holalkere 56, give the full account of these Pandya rulers. Their origin is traced to one Mangaya or Adityadeva of the Yadava branch of the Lunar race. Their general distinctive titles are—Maha-mandalesvara, Lord of Kanchipura (except in Davangere 139 and 149 wherein it is cutting on both sides (Paricchedi-ganda)—perhaps a covert allusion to their defeat of the Chedi kings—and Defeater of the designs of Rajiga Chola. The earliest Pandya inscription found in this district is dated 1032 (*Epigraphia Carnatica*, Vol. XI, Molakalmuru 26), in which, however the name of the king is defaced. The next in point of time is Holalkere 25, dated about 1100.
72. *Epigraphia Carnatica*, Vol. XI, Chitradurga 82.
73. *Ibid.* Vol. VII, Channagiri 33.

74. *Ibid.* Vol. XI, Holalkere 3.
75. *Ibid.* Vol. VII, Channagiri 61.
76. *Ibid.* Vol. XI, Davangere 4.
77. *Ibid.* Davangere 85.
78. *Ibid.* Davangere 168.
79. *Mysore Gazetteer,* 1930. Vol. II, Part II, p. 813.
80. *Epigraphia Carnatica,* Vol. XI, Davangere 115.
81. *Ibid.* Davangere 5.
82. *Ibid.* Chitradurga 33 and 36 respectively.
83. *Ibid.* Molakalmuru 40 and 42
84. *Ibid.* Molakalmuru 26.
85. *Ibid.* Molakalmuru 41.
86. *Ibid.* Davangere 35.
87. *Ibid.* Davangere 32.
88. *Ibid.* Davangere 119.
89. *Ibid.* Holalkere 68.
90. *Ibid.* Holalkere 56.
91. *Ibid.* Davangere 43.
92. *Ibid.* Holalkere 23.
93. *Ibid.* Davangere 114.
94. *Ibid.* Jagalur 12.
95. *Ibid.* Challakere 16.
96. *Ibid.* Challakere 43.
97. *Ibid.* Challakere 21
98. *Ibid.* Hiriyur 37.
99. *Ibid.* Molakalmuru 23.
100. *Ibid.* Molakalmuru 20.
101. *Ibid.* Molakalmuru 24.
102. *Ibid.* Hiriyur 28 and 22 respectively.
103. *Epigraphia Carnatica,* Vol. VI, Chikmagalur 160 ; Kadur 80, etc.
104. *Ibid.* Belur 137, 175 ; Arsikere 178.
105. *Ibid.* Belur 72.
106. *Ibid.* Vol. XII, Chiknayakanhalli 367.
107. *Ibid.* Vol. XI, Chitradurga 23.
108. *Ibid.* Holalkere 13 and 14.
109. *Ibid.* Holalkere 2.
110. *Ibid.* Molakalmuru 12.
111. See Section on Archaeology
112. *Epigraphia Carnatica,* Vol. XI, Davangere 105.
113. *Ibid.* Davangere 25.
114. *Ibid.* Davangere 36.
115. *Ibid.* Chitradurga 12.
116. *Ibid.* Chitradurga 32.
117. *Ibid.* Hiriyur 87.
118. *Ibid.* p. 113 of the Translation Note.
119. *Ibid.* Chitradurga 4 and 6.
120. *Ibid.* Davangere 88.
121. *Ibid.* Davangere 103.
122. *Ibid.* Davangere 13.
123. *Ibid.* Davangere 70.
124. *Ibid.* Davangere 59.
125. *Ibid.* Davangere 67.
126. *Ibid.* Chitradurga 2 and 3.
127. *Ibid.* Davangere 34
128. *Ibid.* Davangere 68
129. *Ibid.* Davangere 23
130. *Ibid.* Davangere 29
131. *Ibid.* Chitradurga 14
132. *Ibid.* Hiriyur 52
133. *Ibid.* Molakalmuru 7 and 32
134. *Ibid.* Holalkere 94
135. *Ibid.* Davangere 107
136. *Ibid.* Jagalur 41
137. *Ibid.* Davangere 106
138. *Ibid.* Davangere 28
139. *Ibid.* Holalkere 132
140. *Ibid.* Chitradurga 45
141. *Ibid.* Davangere 24 and Holalkere 123

142. *Ibid.* Holalkere 111
143. *Ibid.* Molakalmuru 6
144. *Ibid.* Molakalmuru 8 and 9
145. *Ibid.* Holalkere 112
146. *Ibid.* Molakalmuru 4
147. *Ibid.* Molakalmuru 1
148. *Ibid.* Davangere 18
149. *Ibid.* Davangere 30
150. *Ibid.* Holalkere 6 and 7
151. *Ibid.* Harihar 98 and Challakere 25
152. The main source of information for this section is the monograph in Kannada by M. S. Puttanna, entitled *Chitradurgada Palayagararu.*
153. Among the details of this war given by M. S. Puttanna in his book, the one relating to the encouragement given by the Nayaka to the soldiers is interesting. In addition to the family pensions to the soldiers that would die in the battle and the grant of horses to those whose horses would die in the clash, the Nayaka is said to have declared a number of rewards, e.g. at the rate of 5 Durgi pagodas per enemy's head produced, rupees 5 per head shot in the field, rupee one per head shot from the fort-terrace and so on. (*Ibid.* p. 80).
154. *Ibid.* p. 70
155. *Ibid.* Preface p. 1
156. *Epigraphia Carnatica*, Vol. XI, Hiriyur 6 and Challakere 38.
157. *Mysore Gazetteer* (1930), Vol. V, p. 1467
158. *Ibid.* p. 1456.
159. *Epigraphia Carnatica*, Vol. XI, Holalkere 96
160. *Mysore Gazetteer* (1930), Vol. II, p. 2513. Haidar's own reliance on the Korda is notorious. It is said that 200 people with whips stood always ready to use them and not a day passed on which numbers were not flogged. (*Ibid.* p. 2538).
161. *Mysore Gazetteer* (1930), Vol. II, p. 2805
162. Page LXXXII, 57, 58, plate 8, Numbers 23, 24
163. Pages 3-4 and 29-30
164. E.g. 18"x9"x3", 16"x7½"x3", 17"x8½"x3" and 18"x9"x3½" (Cf. *Excavations at Chandravalli*, pp. 82, 24 and 32 respectively) 16"x8"x½" (*Annual Report of the Archaeological Department for the year* 1909, p. 3)
165. *Excavations at Chandravalli*, p. 13.
166. *Asoka* (third edition 1920), p. 153
167. *Epigraphia Carnatica*, Vol. XI, Introduction p. 3
168. *Ancient India*, No. 4, p. 23
169. The report of the excavations appears in *Ancient India*, No. 4, pp. 181-270
170. *Ancient India*, No. 4, p. 202
171. *Annual Report of the Mysore Archaeological Department for the year* **1940**, p. 71
172. *Ancient India*, No. 4, p. 202
173. See Chandravalli inscription of Mayurasharma in the *Annual Report of Mysore Archaeological Department for the year* 1929, p. 50

CHAPTER III

PEOPLE

THE total population of the Chitradurga district, according to the Census of 1961, was 10,94,284, out of which 5,63,988 were males and 5,30,296 females, the ratio between the two sexes being 1,000 : 940. This total population was distributed over an area of 4,170.9 square miles or 10,802.6 square kilometres. In terms of area, Chitradurga ranked seventh among the districts of the State. But from the point of view of population, the rank of the district was eleventh. In respect of density of population also, the district, with its figure of 101 per square kilometre (262 per square mile), occupied the eleventh* place in the State. In spite of being a little bigger than Tumkur district, which is adjacent, Chitradurga fell much behind Tumkur in density of population, the figure for Tumkur being 130 per square kilometre or 336 per square mile. These facts together with a comparison of the density of population of the district with that of the State as a whole, which was 123 per sq. kilometre or 319 per sq. mile, make it obvious that Chitradurga is one of the not-so-thickly-populated districts of the State. This, however, is not without reason. Density of population depends on various factors like the soil, rainfall and climate of the district, its geographical location and geological features, railway communications and industrial development and also on historical reasons. It may be said that all these factors have been at work in retarding the growth of population of the Chitradurga district. While the rainfall in the district is very scanty—the normal annual rainfall figure for this district is the lowest of all the districts in the State—the hill tract comprising five out of its nine taluks is more or less uncultivable and arid. Chitradurga was not a district known for its industrial development. Added to this, as has been observed in the previous Gazetteer (1927), "in the wars of the 18th century the western districts of the State suffered heavily from the Mahratta depredations and there is reason to believe that while the eastern division rapidly recovered from the effects of the Mysore wars, the western has not" (Volume I, page 359).

Population

*In terms of square mile, it would be tenth in the State.

Coming to the taluks, of the nine taluks of the district, Challakere is the largest, being 798.2 square miles or 2,067.4 square kilometres in area, followed by Hiriyur (660.9 square miles or 1,711.7 square kilometres), Hosadurga (557.1 square miles or 1,442.9 square kilometres), Chitradurga (527.7 square miles or 1,366.7 square kilometres), Holalkere (423.8 square miles or 1,097.6 square kilometres), Jagalur (371.4 square miles or 961.9 square kilometres), Davangere (365.1 square miles or 945.6 square kilometres), Molakalmuru (281.2 square miles or 728.3 square kilometres) and Harihar (185.5 square miles or 480.5 square kilometres). But, oddly enough, according to the 1961 census, the biggest taluk is also the most thinly populated one, the density of population of Challakere being 101 per square mile or 74 per square kilometre. The most thickly populated taluk in the district is Davangere (514 per square mile or 199 per square kilometre), followed by Harihar (444 per square mile or 171 per square kilometre), Chitradurga (329 per square mile or 104 per square kilometre) and Holalkere (269 per square mile or 104 per square kilometre). These, except Chitradurga, are the taluks consisting of more plain land than hills. The other five taluks which have a more hilly terrain, have the density figures varying from 191 per square mile or 74 per square kilometre for Challakere to 223 per square mile or 86 per square kilometre for Jagalur. It is interesting to note that while, according to the 1961 census, the number of inhabited villages is the same (*i.e.*, 161) in both Challakere and Holalkere taluks, the former is in area, nearly double the latter, which is only 423.8 square miles or 1,097.6 square kilometres.

Growth and variation

The following figures show the talukwise increase in the population during the period from 1901 to 1961 :—

Taluk	*Population* 1901	*Population* 1961	*Increase*
Chitradurga ...	83,205	1,71,225	88,020
Challakere ...	74,035	1,52,249	78,214
Molakalmuru ...	35,252	61,478	26,226
Jagalur ...	47,196	82,796	35,600
Davangere ...	70,202	1,87,835	1,17,633
Harihar ...	38,919	82,309	43,390
Holalkere ...	53,284	1,14,014	60,730
Hosadurga ...	49,695	1,10,994	61,299
Hiriyur ...	58,837	1,31,384	72,547
Total for the district ...	5,10,625	10,94,284	5,83,659

The total increase in population of the district during this period has more than doubled. This increase has, however, not been contributed to equally by all the taluks. The percentage variation of population between 1901 and 1961 has been 97.80 in the case of rural areas and 255.23 in the case of urban areas.

The total percentage variation for the district during the period was 114.30.

Urban and Rural population

Of the total population of 10,94,284 of the district, 1,90,159 lived in towns and 9,04,125 lived in villages, the percentage of the urban population to the total population being 17. According to the Census of 1951, these figures were 8,68,370, 1,35,961 and 7,32,409, respectively. This means that during this period, the urban population of the district has increased by about 40 per cent whereas the rural population has increased by about 23 per cent. The numbers of towns and inhabited villages in the district in 1951 and 1961 were as follows :—

		1951	1961	*Variation*
Towns	..	12	12	Nil
Villages	..	1,212	1,239	+27

This statement shows that there has been no increase in the number of towns between 1951 and 1961, but there has been an increase in the number of villages during the same period. The total number of uninhabited villages in the district according to the censuses of 1951 and 1961 was 268 and 246 respectively.

The following table gives the numbers of occupied houses in the urban and rural areas in the district in 1941, 1951 and 1961.

		Number of occupied houses		
		1941	1951	1961
Urban	..	16,427	21,662	32,027
Rural	..	1,21,800	1,34,410	1,61,366

If the above two tables indicate the progressive drift of population from the rural to the urban tracts in general, the following table reveals the tendency of large towns to grow larger, naturally at the cost of the villages which do not register increase of population to the same extent. The population figures of 1901 and 1961 for the towns of the Chitradurga district are as under :—

Name of the town		1901	1961	*Variation*
Davangere	..	10,402	78,124	+67,722
Chitradurga	..	5,702	32,336	+27,544
Harihar	..	5,783	22,829	+17,046
Challakere	..	2,000	10,408	+ 8,408
Hosadurga	..	2,263	6,712	+ 4,449
Holalkere	..	3,418	5,976	+ 2,558

Name of the town		1901	1961	*Variation*
Hiriyur	..	2,313	11,455	+ 9,142
Jagalur	..	3,307	5,772	+ 2,465
Molakalmuru	..	2,915	4,853	+ 1,938
Turuvanur	..	5,035	4,706	— 329
Mayakonda	..	1,894	3,211	+ 1,317
Nayakanahatti	..	2,858	2,777	— 81

Thus, while the population of the larger towns like Davangere and Chitradurga has increased by about 7 times and about 6 times respectively, that of the smaller towns like Holalkere, Jagalur and Molakalmuru has increased by hardly 2 times. The population of two towns, namely, Turuvanur and Nayakanahatti, has gone down. In the case of Turuvanur, the decrease is due to separation of Turuvanur village from the town.

The reasons for this continuous drift of population from villages to towns are many. Employment opportunities and educational facilities available in the towns and cities constitute a major factor. Often, the land-holding families maintain two houses—one in the village and another in some town, the latter being meant for the school and college-going children. The majority of the non-cultivating owners of land, *i.e.*, agricultural-rent-receiving class and their dependents live in towns, many of them engaging themselves in various kinds of urban business. The notion that town life is dependable and easy-going in contrast with the uncertainties and hardships of agricultural life is also largely responsible for this drift in population. Sometimes the factions and party strifes in villages also drive families to towns and cities. In addition to all these reasons, there are the common lures of town life such as impersonal living and attractions of hotels, cinemas and other entertainments.

With all this, it should be mentioned that there has been, during very recent years, some movement of population, however small it may be for the time being, towards the villages also and this is mainly due to the new Governmental policy towards land tenure. The 'land to the tiller' movement together with the idea of removing the system of 'absentee landlordism' are making more and more non-cultivating land-owners to go back to the villages in order to safeguard their interest.

Language

The 1961 Census gives a list of languages returned as mother-tongues in the Chitradurga district. Of these, Kannada is, of course the dominant language claiming more than 70 per cent of the district's total population. The total number of persons speaking Kannada in the district was 7,98,616. Trailing far behind Kannada came Telugu, with 1,57,327 persons speaking it, and Hindustani, including Urdu, with 79,569 persons having it as

mother-tongue. Tamil was spoken by 16,392 persons, Marathi by 13,958 persons and Hindi by 1,452 persons.

Kannada is the mother-tongue of a majority of people in all the taluks of the district. The largest Telugu-speaking population is in Molakalmuru and Challakere taluks and the smallest in the Holalkere-*cum*-Hosadurga tract. Hindustani is more or less evenly distributed throughout the district, more than 50 per cent of the speakers, however, living in the urban areas. Diametrically opposite to this is the case of Banjari, largely spoken in the Holalkere-Hosadurga tract and mostly confined to the rural areas. All other languages like Marathi, Gujarathi, Marwari, Oriya, Konkani and Tulu are mostly to be heard in towns. A word about the style of the Kannada language spoken in this district would not be out of place here. Chitradurga was the northernmost district in the former Mysore State; but now it is one of the central districts bounded on its north-western and northern sides by Dharwar and Bellary districts. There has been considerable social and marital give-and-take between Chitradurga and these districts. These contacts have had their effect on the style of the language of the district. Even a casual visitor to the district, particularly its western taluks, can perceive some peculiarities in the intonation of the local people and anybody who has heard both the old Mysore and North Karnatak styles of Kannada can make out that the peculiarities of the district are due to the influence of North Karnatak districts on these parts. It is also a fact that this influence is more strongly felt in towns than in the interior parts.

Most of the persons whose mother-tongue is a language other than Kannada are bilinguists and in the majority of cases their second language is Kannada. This is the case not only with respect to the nearer languages like Tamil, Telugu, Tulu, Malayalam, Marathi and Hindusthani but also with respect to the farther languages like Banjari, Punjabi Marwari, Gujarathi and Oriya.

As for the script, if we leave aside the Roman script, Kannada is by far the only script used for all official, business and commercial purposes.

Social life—Property and Inheritance

The inheritance of property continues to be governed generally by the customary Hindu Law, even though the Hindu Succession Act of 1956 has introduced radical changes in the matter of inheritance of property. The daughters do not always claim any right in the property of their deceased father, though the new Act has for the first time conferred the right of inheriting a share out of the property of the deceased equally along with the sons, when the father dies intestate. Similarly, the widow's right to own her share of the estate absolutely is not always exercised.

The inheritance is universally in the male line. Evidence, however, of the existence at one time of the mother-right is, according to previous Mysore Gazetteer (Vol. I, page 181), traceable among several castes of the district. Under the system, descent was traced and property transmitted in the female line. Even now among the Kurubas, Bedas, Voddas, Madigas and Holeyas the family is often sought to be continued through a daughter who lives in her father's house.

Manevalatana The affiliation of a son-in-law in the family is also prevalent in some castes. Among the Holeyas, a resident son-in-law receives an equal share of his father-in-law's property with his brothers-in-law. A similar custom prevails among the Bedas, Voddas, Gollas and a section of Vokkaligas. This is called 'Manevalatana' in Kannada and 'Illatom' in Telugu. According to this custom, when a man has no sons, a daughter is married to a man who agrees to become a member of the family and who thereafter resides with the father-in-law and inherits his estate for his children.

Joint Family System The joint family system is no doubt losing its hold on the society in recent years. The reasons for this are obviously many. If the individualistic tendency of the male members of the joint family and the inability of its female members to live under the same roof are the common and age-old reasons for the break-up of joint families, the conditions of modern living, the pattern of present-day economics and the new social laws are also to some extent responsible for their gradual decline. This should not be taken to mean that the joint family system is entirely a thing of the past; there are a number of joint families still existing in the district. But it may be said that they have almost lost spontaneity and in many cases are more or less forced by circumstances to be joint families.

Marriage and Morals There are many restrictions on marriage among the generality of castes and tribes. A man must not marry outside the limits of his caste and if he is a member of a sub-caste, he may not marry outside the particular sub-caste. In the case of several castes (*e.g.*, Kuruba, Holeya, Agasa, Uppara, Kumbara, Banjara, Telugu Banajiga and Devanga), linguistic, territorial, religious and occupational differences generally prove effectual bars to inter-marriage. Again, in the same caste, the rule that the bride and the bride-groom should not belong to the same *Gotra* (or sept) prevails. As elsewhere in the State and outside, many of the exogamous groups among the Brahmins are generally eponymous, each group or *Gotra* being supposed to consist of the descendants of one or other of the Vedic Rishis. *Gotras* with similar names are found among a few other castes like Vaishya, Besta, Sale, etc. Many castes and even sub-castes have headmen of comparatively modern times as the reputed ancestors

of their exogamous sections. This is the case among the Banjaras, Kadu Gollas, Agasas, Idigas, etc. Some groups are named after the places where the founders originally resided or are supposed to have resided. Traces of totemism, giving rise to exogamous septs, are also found among other castes as well, the totem being generally some animal, plant or some other inanimate object now or until recently held in reverence by the members of the sept.

Side by side with these restrictions on marriage, there exists a custom among many of the castes, which allows marriage between certain near relatives. Thus cross-cousin marriage is common among many of the communities in the district.

Among most castes and tribes in the district, a woman's brother enjoys an important position in the family. It might be said that the practice for man to ask for the hand of his sister's daughter either for himself or for his son is almost common in the district. Among the Kurubas, Agasas, Helavas, Kumbaras, Idigas, Banajigas, etc., it is the right and duty of the maternal uncle to cut the chief post of *Kalli* (Euphorbia tirukalli), required for erecting the marriage booth. Among the Holeyas, the *tali* is tied to the bride by the maternal uncle. Among the Lingayats, a portion of the present made to the bride must go to the maternal uncle and another portion to the bride's sister. Among the Idigas and Telugu Banajigas, the duty of tying the chaplet (*Bhasinga*) to the bridegroom's forehead lies on the maternal uncle. Among some castes the bride is brought to the marriage booth by her maternal uncle. Among the Madigas, the bride and the bridegroom are each lifted up by their respective maternal uncles who circle round three times with the burden and upset a jug of water (kept close by) by kicking it. The couple is then carried inside the house and deposited on the marriage dais. The maternal uncles are each presented with a turban, 12 betel leaves, 12 nuts, one cube of jaggery and some cash. This ceremony is called Binaga, or *Serebidisuvudu, i.e.,* release from bondage.

Traditionally, a number of castes used to prefer child-marriage or pre-puberty marriage to adult or post-puberty marriage. Under the law as also in practice, child marriages are not now in vogue. The Hindu Marriage Act, 1955, has fixed the marital age for girls at 16 and for boys at 21.

Marriage is essentially a sacrament among the Hindus, and its rites are governed by set rules, variations occurring according to the customs of individual castes and communities.

Among the Brahmins and those following them, the universal practice is to give away the bride as a 'gift' to a suitable bridegroom. In recent years, with the increase in the cost of education and competition for well-educated sons-in-law, the habit of paying

for them in some form or other had come into existence. This evil system had spread to other communities as well. But at the same time, instances of enlightened bride-grooms who refused to take dowry were also not wanting.

This anti-social practice of paying dowry to the bridegroom at the time of marriage was prevalent among the generality of castes. Therefore, the Dowry Prohibition Act—a Central Act—was adopted and it came into force with effect from July 1, 1961. Since then, giving, taking and demanding of dowry have become offences punishable under law. A person who violates the law can be sentenced to imprisonment upto six months or to a fine which may extend to Rs. 5,000 or both. However, the evil practice still persists to a certain extent.

Tera

Among certain other castes and tribes, it was the bride that had to be paid for and this payment was known as *tera* or *teravu* and it had to be in cash. The amount varied with each caste. Many castes were content with the amount fixed by tradition and did not arbitrarily raise it. The cases where the *tera* was excused were rare; instances where it was excused partly or fully were: (1) where the bridegroom was the maternal uncle of the bride or his son, the usual amount was reduced by one half or was excused altogether; (2) when a widow married her husband's younger brother, no *tera* was paid; (3) where the bride was a widow and the bridegroom a widower, then it was reduced by one half and (4) when there was an exchange of daughters between the marrying families, it was altogether excused on both sides. On the contrary, when a widower desired to marry a virgin, he had to give a higher *tera*. Sometimes, as among the Kurubas, if the amount to be paid was heavy, its payment was spread over a number of years. Occasionally, when the bridegroom was too poor to pay, he was allowed to work in his father-in-law's house, being fed and clothed by the latter. There was no period of service fixed, but usually, as among the Voddas, the son-in-law had to serve until he begot a female child and presented her to his brother-in-law. The practice of *tera* is not much in vogue now.

Marriage Ceremonies —Hindu

Among the generality of castes the marriage ceremonies are elaborate and, in all their details, last usually 2—3 days. In the majority of cases the marriage takes place at the bride's place. Among a section of the Holeyas, however, it is performed at the bridegroom's. Among the Kadu Gollas, it takes place outside the hamlet and those who attend the marriage enter their houses after taking a bath. The marriage ceremonies include among most castes various observances, the chief of which are the *Vilyada Shastra* (betel ceremony) which fixes the contract between the parties; the *Devadruta*, which invokes the blessings of God and

the dead ancestors on the couple; the *Chappara* (or the *Elevasa*) which is the erecting of the marriage pandal; the tying of *tali* which turns the contract into a sacrament; the *Dhare*, the pouring of milk into the joined hands of the couple; the *Sase*, the pouring of handfuls of rice by married couples on the bride and the bridegroom; *Bhuma*, the eating together by the newly married couple; the *Nagavali*, the searching of two vessels containing red coloured water; the *Kankana Visarjana*, the untying of the wrist bands from the hands of the couple; and finally the *Gaddige* (or *Simhasana*) *Puje*, the worship of the throne. The binding portion of the marriage is invariably the tying of the *Tali* followed by the *Dhare*. Among the Banjaras, going round the milk-post is the operative part of the ceremony.

There is practically no difference between the details of marriage among the Brahmins in this district and those in other parts of the State. The marriage takes place usually at the bride's residence or rarely in a temple or a *Matha*. After the arrival of the bridegroom at the bride's place, the important steps of the ceremony are *Varapuja* or the honouring of the bridegroom by the bride's parents, *Nandi*, which invites the ancestors of the bridal couple, *Kankana Dharana* symbolising the couple's entry into marriage state, *Akshata* or the throwing of a few grains of reddened rice by the couple on each other's head and also by the gathering over the couple and the tying of the *Mangalasutra* followed by *Lajahoma* and *Saptapadi* which marks the completion of the marriage.

The main feature of the Lingayat marriage, as distinguished from the Brahminic, is the absence of fire in the former. The place of fire amongst the Lingayats, it may be stated, is taken by the *Panchakalashas* representing the five Gotrakaras of the Lingayats. The marriage is performed mostly in the house of either of the parties or rarely in the *Mathas*. All the details of the marriage ceremony including the *Varapuja* take place after the *Kalashasthapana* is over. The most important part of the marriage ceremony is the tying of the *Mangalasutra* by the bridegroom around the neck of the bride. The priest then invokes the divine blessings and all the people present strew rice on the couple and also bless them.

The old ideas about caste and marriage are slowly losing their hold on the people. For instance, in many cases at present the marriage rituals are simplified. In the old days, the marriage ceremonies used to last for about five days, but now marriages are completed in two or three days. However, this should not be taken to mean that the expenses of marriage have come down in any way. On the contrary, it may be said that the marriage expenses have increased. Instances of performing marriage ceremonies in a 'grand style' by going in for big loans of money are

not wanting. Views are also changing regarding inter-caste relations. Though, of course, inter-caste marriages are still few and far between, the number of inter-sect marriages is increasing.

Muslim Marriage

Muslim marriages are celebrated according to the Islamic rites. Formal proposals for the marriage come from the bridegroom's father. Like the other communities in the district, Muslims also erect large pandals in front of the marriage-house. The bridegroom arrives in a procession on the day of the marriage and is received by the bride's people. The *Kazi* asks the bride's representative whether the bride agrees to the marriage. The representative obtains the consent of the bride in the presence of a witness and conveys it to the *Kazi*. The same question is put to the bridegroom and his consent obtained. The *Kazi* obtains the signatures of the bridegroom, the bride's father and two witnesses, one from each side. The proceedings are recorded and the guests raise hands in approval. The *Kazi* reads out the *nikha* and invokes the blessings of the Holy Prophets. Later, the bridegroom is taken to the *zenana* for the face-showing ceremony which is called *Jalwa* when he puts a gold ring on the bride's finger. Then chapters from the Quran are read.

Christian Marriage

The Christians celebrate their marriage in the Church. All arrangements for the wedding are made in the bride's house. It is the duty of the parish priest or any other religious authority superior to the parish priest to conduct the marriage. After the marriage service is read, the bridegroom and the bride are asked whether both of them are agreeable to the union. The marriage is then solemnised.

Divorce

Marriage being a religious sacrament among the Hindus divorce as such is not generally in practice. Among some of the castes, however, divorce is not difficult. It can be brought about at the instance of either party for infidelity on the part of the wife or husband or other serious reasons. In either case, the wife has to give back to her husband the *Tali* tied to her on the occasion of marriage, the jewels, if any, presented to her then as also the bride's dowry and the marriage expenses incurred by the husband in case she re-marries. Often the bride's dowry and the amount of the marriage expenses of the previous husband are collected from the man who marries her later. Such a union is called '*Kudike*' in contrast with the regular marriage which is called '*Maduve*'. The Hindu Marriage Act, 1955, has, however, provided for divorce. Among the Muslims and the Protestant Christians also, divorce is permitted.

Before the passing of the Hindu Marriage Act of 1955, polygamy was not unknown. With the enactment of this law, polygamy has become illegal. Among the Hindus, *sagotra* and *sapinda*

marriages were prohibited as a rule, nor were inter-caste or inter-sub-caste marriages permissible. The Hindu Marriage Act, 1955, however, permits inter-caste marriages but prohibits *sapinda* marriages altogether. *Sagotra* marriages are now permissible under law.

Widow Remarriage

Among some castes, widows do not remarry. In addition to the Brahmins, those who do not remarry their widows are the Vaishyas, Kadu Gollas, Agasas, sections of the Idigas, Nayindas, Devangas and Kumbaras, the non-Lingayat Banajigas, etc. Certain castes like the Ganigas and the Gollas stand in a middle position. If, among these castes, a widow chooses to remarry or live with a widower, she is allowed to do so and her children form a *Salu* or line of their own. Among the Kadu Gollas, who believe that a woman on losing her husband becomes the bride of their tutelary deity, the feeling against remarriage is very intense, and the widow is even allowed to continue to wear bangles and the *Tali* as usual. In many other castes, widow remarriage is quite common. Among certain castes a widow cannot marry her deceased husband's brother. Among most castes, she cannot also marry any of the agnatic relations of her late husband. The restriction is further extended among a few other castes, for example, Kurubas, Helavas, Bedas and Holeyas, to all persons belonging to the exogamous sect of the husband.

When a widow marries her late husband's younger brother, there is hardly any ceremony excepting that the new husband has to supply to his caste fellowmen betels and nuts. In other cases, there is a kind of brief ceremony on the occasion. Married women cannot take part in it. The marriage takes place usually during the dark fortnight and often after sunset, in the presence of the assembled castemen. The bride bathes, puts on new clothes given to her by the new husband, who ties the *Tali* to her and the customary caste-dinner follows.

Social evils

Social evils like prostitution, drinking, gambling and untouchability are prohibited by law, but all the same these evils do exist to some extent. All these evils, except the last one, are more to be met with in towns and cities.

Home life—Dwellings

The houses in villages are built along narrow and irregular lanes and streets. Built usually of mud or sun-dried bricks, these dwellings are one-storeyed and low, generally with very few openings outwards except the main door. Larger houses have courtyards within, surrounded by verandahs. Some of the old houses belonging to rich persons have wooden pillars and doorways elaborately carved. The houses of the poor consist of a couple of rooms with a small back-yard. A raiyat's house is generally a long narrow room half of which is shared with the cattle at night. For roofing, the rich use the red Mangalore tiles

while the others use the country tiles or thatch their huts with various kinds of grass called Badi, Apu, etc. Many of the houses in the eastern taluks of the district have flat mud roofs. The temporary huts erected by the labourers and the migrating classes are called *Gudlus* or *Gudisalus*. Formerly, most of the villages in the plainer parts of the district appear to have been fortified in some way or the other. Even now one can see the remains of the gateways, which were perhaps closed at night, or the remnants of a '*hude*' or a round tower loop-holed for musketry on the outskirts of some of the villages. Scenes of the remains of regular forts are also not uncommon.

Each village has its own temple dedicated to deities like Hanuman, Veerabhadra or Basava and also a shrine dedicated to the local goddess, who is generally a form of Shakti.

In towns, housing conditions are much better than in the villages. Almost all the municipal towns have well-planned extensions in addition to the old townships. The layouts of streets and their sanitation being under control in these towns, a great deal of improvement has been effected during the last two or three decades. Here too the roads in the older parts are often narrow and irregular. The houses in the towns range from small insanitary dwellings of the poor classes of labourers to the well-designed and elegantly constructed bungalows of the rich people. The houses of the poor are almost similar to those in the villages. The middle class and the rich people have sufficiently big houses often with an upper storey; the majority of them are roofed with Mangalore tiles or cement concrete. Larger towns like Chitradurga and Davangere have a number of lodging houses, rest-houses and *chatras or choultries*, providing many of the modern facilities.

Furniture

Furniture, in the modern sense of the word, may be said to be practically non-existent in the rural houses. A chair or two and a table may be found in one or two houses and a bench or two in the village hotels. But, in the urban areas, the demand for furniture may be said to be continuously on the increase. It has almost become a necessity with some classes of people like lawyers, officers and businessmen. Traditional pieces of furniture are the dining boards (*manes* and the swing boards (*toogu manchas*), the latter, however, fast going out of fashion. The rich, in addition to the ordinary chairs and tables, have one or two easy chairs, one or more wooden or steel cots and cupboards. In the shops and other establishments, nowadays steel furniture is becoming more and more common.

Dress

"Dress generally varies with caste": this was said about forty years ago (C. Hayavadana Rao: Mysore Gazetteer, 1927, Vol. I, page 418). To-day it is only partially true. In

the present day society, with the increasing modern outlook, dress hardly betrays the caste.

The generality of the orthodox Hindus including the Brahmins, usually have their heads shaved except for the tuft at the crown. The *dhotra* or *dhoti*, a thin sheet of white cloth, covers the lower limbs. The elderly people wear the *dhoti* in the *katche* style, *i.e.*, one end of it being gathered into folds in front and the other passed between the legs and tucked in at the waist behind; the others simply wrap a shorter *dhoti* round their waist. A shirt, half or full, covers the upper part and a piece of cloth known as '*angavastra*' is often thrown over the shoulders. When going out on formal business, elderly Hindus usually wear a turban called *peta* or *rumal* and a long close-collared coat, either woollen or cotton. The *peta*, which is a long piece of cloth, is the characteristic head-gear of the former Mysore State and it is often lace-bordered. The *rumal*, which is a large piece of cloth, is less worn now than in the past. The merchant classes dress more or less in the same manner. Among the younger generation, the Western type of dress consisting of a pant and a shirt and a coat or a bush-shirt has been common in all the castes. Boys wear a shirt and a half pant or a pyjama. Some of them wear a cap, white or coloured, when attending schools and colleges, while others prefer to be bare-headed. The Hassan cap, once in great use, has been out of fashion and now replaced by the home-spun white cap popularly known as Gandhi cap. The dress of the cultivators consists of a *rumal*, a shirt and a *dhoti*, while some of them wear an *angavastra* and loose drawers reaching to the knees called *challana*, all made of cotton. To this is often added a *kambli* or blanket.

Coming to the dress of the women, one may say at the outset that in common with the other districts of the Mysore State women in this district also are fully clothed. A tight-fitting short bodice called *kuppasa* is universally worn here except perhaps among the Voddas and the Myasa Bedas; this covers the upper part of the body leaving the arms, neck and throat bare. It is generally of a gay colour, or with borders and gussets of contrasting colours. The *sire* or *sari*, a long sheet of cloth, is wrapped round the lower part of the body coming down to the ankle. One end of this is gathered into a large bunch of folds in front while the other, passing across the bosom, hangs freely over the left shoulder, or is taken over the right shoulder also, so as to cover the upper part more fully. The latter end of the *sari* among the generality of castes is taken over the head, except among the Brahmins and some other castes. Among some Brahmin sects, particularly among the Madhvas, the *sari* is worn in the *katche* fashion. The usual dress of the girls consists of a *langa* or skirt and a jacket or a frock.

The dress of many Muslim men differs chiefly in cut and colour and in the wearing of long loose drawers. It is mostly the same as that worn by the Deccani Muslims in general. The orthodox Muhammadans shave their heads completely and grow beard. A skull cap is worn before the turban is tied round the head.

Among other castes, the Lambanis are noted for their peculiar dress. The Lambani women's dress consists of a *langa* or gown of stout coarse print, a tartan petticoat and a mantle often elaborately embroidered, which also covers the head and the upper part of the body. The hair is worn in ringlets or plaits hanging down each side of the face and decorated with small shells and silver ornaments. The arms and ankles are profusely covered with trinkets and bangles made of bones, brass or other crude materials. The men's dress consists of a white or red turban and a pair of breeches reaching a little below the knees, with a string of red silk tassels hanging by the right side from the waist band, the bust above the waist being often uncovered. Now-a-days, the men's dress has changed and approximated with that of other castes, while the women have still stuck to their old dress.

Ornaments

The usual ornaments put on by the women-folk in the district are *jadenagara*, *kedage* and *koorma* adorning the head and hair, *bendole*, *bugudi* and *kennesara* on the ears, *mooguhattu*, *beseri* and *mukra* on the nose, *mangala sutra*, *paun-sara*, *gundina sara*, *padakada sara* and *havalada sara* on the neck, glass bangles, *kadaga*, *himbale* and *dundu* on the wrists, *bandi* and *vanki* on the arms, *kalukadaga* and *kalchainu* on the legs, *minchu*, *bellisutha*, *pillihoora* and *rare meenu* on the toes. The head, ear and nose ornaments are generally made of gold. The *paunsara*, *gundinasara* and *padakadasara* are of gold and the cost varies according to the gold content and the size of the ornament. Glass bangles are put on by both the married and the unmarried, except of course the widows. The *bandi* which adorns the arm is also of silver but is not in common use. *Vanki* which is of gold and similar in design to that of *bandi* is very rare now. The waist band is of silver. The other ornaments are also made of silver. Of late, the *kadaga*, *himbale* and *bandi* have lost their popularity. It was a must for the bride on the occasion of her marriage, but since the past one or two decades it is found not essential. Similarly the *bugudi* and *kennesara* have lost their original popularity during the past decade. About 10 or 15 years back, it was a practice to adorn all the toes, except the big toes, with toe-rings. Now, the women of the district put on rings for the second and the fourth toes only. The ornaments that may be worn by the widows are restricted. They should not have the glass bangles. But they may put

on *dundu,* a silver wristlet, or *bilavara,* a brass wristlet. An unmarried girl may put on all the above-mentioned ornaments, except the gold *thali* (*mangalasutra*), *kadaga* and *himbale*. Gold necklaces are possessed by only a few rich. At the time of marriage, upper middle class families adorn the bride with a *gundina sara* or a *padakada sara* made of gold.

Some men wear *kadaka* of gold *i.e.,* an ear-stud with a red or a white crystal, while many men wear gold finger rings. *Bedi,* a silver wristlet, has gone out of use during the past 20 years. A few of the men-folk have silver finger rings. The ears of the boys are pierced at a tender age and first of all, a copper wire ring is put on the ears for a couple of months, which would be changed to that of gold with a small crystal.

Women in rural areas used to get their forearms tattooed with floral designs while still young. But since the past about 15 years this practice has declined.

Food habits

As in language so also in food habits, the Chitradurga district stands in between the southern and the northern districts of the Mysore State. If the staple food-grains in the southern districts are ragi and rice and those in the northern districts are jowar and rice, the staple food-grains in Chitradurga district comprise all the three, *i.e.,* ragi, rice and jowar in addition to the minor grains like navane. Speaking region-wise, it may be said that ragi and rice are more in use in the eastern taluks and jowar, rice and navane are more in use in the western taluks. To some extent food varies with caste, or, more correctly, with class. The Brahmins are mainly rice-eaters, their secondary items being made of jowar and wheat. Wheat is usually used on festive, ceremonial and other special occasions. Among other castes also, the use of rice is gradually increasing. Just as ragi, jowar is also used more in the form of *mudde* or balls than in the form of bread (which is similar to the chapati of North India), the latter being more popular in the Harihar and Davangere taluks. Among the lower classes, ragi or jowar *mudde* with the dal preparations like *saru* or *huli,* or *chatni* or what is called as *udaka,* a sort of soup with leafy vegetables, is the commonest item of food.

Poor classes take their food on leaves. This is so with many of the well-to-do families also, for reasons of cleanliness. But generally speaking, leaves are being replaced by plates. Some of the Lingayats, particularly those living in villages, use the *addanige,* a small three-legged wooden stool for placing the plate on which they take their food.

Coming to the items of food, which do not differ much from those in other districts, the normal vegetarian meals consist of

rice, jowar or ragi preparation, ghee, dal, one or two vegetables, pickles and curds or butter milk. These are also the common items of hotel food in the district, often with the addition of *chapatis* and *happalas* or *pappads*. On festive occasions, these are supplemented by sweet and savoury dishes and fruits.

The grown-ups among the upper classes have only two meals a day, one at mid-day and the other at night; but they are supplemented by tiffin, with coffee or tea in the morning and in the afternoon. The other classes have generally three meals, once in the morning, lunch at mid-day and a dinner at night. Some among these now-a-days have their breakfast in the form of tiffin with coffee.

The Brahmins, Vaishyas, Lingayats and the Jains are strict vegetarians. The majority of the others eat meat, poultry and fish. As elsewhere, beef is not eaten by the Hindus and pork by the Muhammadans. The Myasa Bedas do not eat fowls and the Pinjaris, a section of the Muslims, beef.

Festivals

The lives of the Hindus are enlivened by a great variety of festivals. While some important festivals are common to all the communities, others are sectarian in nature, the Brahmins claiming many more than the rest. Although these festivals are primarily religious in nature they also serve social purposes to some extent. A number of old and traditional festivals have by now become either extinct or are fast dying out. The following is a chronological enumeration of some of the more important festivals observed by the different sections of Hindus of the district. *Ugadi*, or more correctly Yugadi, the first day of Chaitra, is the new year day of the Shalivahana Saka and is observed by all castes. The day is considered as one of the most auspicious days in the year. On this day, the priest reads the new year's *panchanga* or the Hindu almanac. *Ramanavami*, the 9th day of Chaitra, is celebrated as the birthday of god Rama. *Hanuma Jayanti*, *i.e.*, the birthday of Hanuman is observed on the full moon day of Chaitra. *Basava Jayanti*, *i.e.*, the birthday of Basaveshwara is celebrated on the third day of Vaishakha Shuddha (Rohini Nakshatra). This is a sacred day for the Lingayats. Now-a-days the festival is taking a social turn and lectures on the life and teachings of Sri Basaveshwara and other programmes are arranged. *Akshayatritiya*, the third lunar day of Vaishakha, is considered as one of the luckiest days of the year. Most of the cultivators start their spade work on this day and in general people begin on this day anything new that they wish to do. *Narasimha Jayanthi*, *i.e.*, the birthday of god Narasimha falls on the full moon day of Vaishakha and is observed by a section of the Brahmins. Though every 11th day of the bright half and the dark half of a month is considered as a fasting day, only a few observe it: but Ashadha Ekadashi, *i.e.*, the 11th day of the

bright half of Ashadha is observed by many including Brahmins, Lingayats and Reddis. *Nagapanchami*, the fifth day of Shravana, is one of the important festivals which is observed by almost all sections. This is an occasion on which the serpent in the from of a stone image or an earthen image is worshipped. *Gokulashtami*, the eighth day of Shravana, is believed to be the birthday of god Krishna. Many Hindus observe this day as a day of fast and at midnight when Lord Krishna is believed to have been born, an idol of Him is worshipped. The whole night is often spent in singing devotional songs is praise of Krishna.

Ganesha Chaturthi, falling on the 4th day of the bright half of Bhadrapada, is another festival observed by many castes. The festival which lasts usually for one, three, five or eleven days and during which Ganesha is worshipped as the god of wisdom, is one of the popular festivals. *Navaratri*, which begins from the first day of Ashvina, is known for the worship of Shakti in her various forms—Saraswati, Durga, Chamundi, etc. The 10th day known as Dasara marks the end of the festival. *Navaratri* is one of the most important festivals for all the Kannada people and it has now-a-days assumed almost a national importance as *Nadahabba*. *Dipavali*, signifying a festival of lights, starts from the 13th day of the dark half of Ashvina and lasts for five days. This is one of the most colourful festivals observed by all communities and known to the children as the festival of crackers. In addition to its religious aspect, this festival also has some social importance and there is much give-and-take among near relatives on this occasion. *Tulasi Lagna*, or the marriage ceremony of Tulasi (Basil plant) is mostly a Brahminic festival falling on the 12th lunar day of Kartika. *Makara Sankranti*, also called Bhogi, on the 4th lunar day of Pushya marks the entry of the Sun into Capricorn. It is also one of the harvest festivals in which the newly harvested rice is cooked into a dish called Huggi or Pongal. There is a distribution of a mixture of sesamum, sugar or gur and bits of copra on the occasion. *Mahashivaratri*, on the new moon day of Magha, is the most important festival for the devotees of Shiva. On this day they observe a fast and worship Shiva at home or in a temple. The night is spent in singing devotional songs on Shiva. The next morning, the god is again worshipped and a feast is held. *Holi* or *Kamana habba*, marking the death of Kama, is observed during the week ending with the full moon day of Phalguna. On this day people of all communities revel in songs. In the houses a cake and some other eatables are thrown into a special fire along with an effigy of Kama; the male members of the family walk round the fire three or four times beating their mouths with their hands as if at a funeral. There are communal worships (of Kama) and bonfires at night, when these rites are repeated on a larger scale.

On the fifth day of the dark half of Phalguna men and boys sprinkle *okali* or coloured water on one another. In addition to these, comes the worship of Mari during summer, when the epidemics are likely to prevail. Many castes take part in propitiating or 'cooling' her.

In addition, the Hindus undertake *yatras* to worship deities like Ranganatha of Biligiri hills, Venkateshwara of Tirupati, Madeshwara, Shrikantheshwara of Nanjangud, Sri Krishna of Udipi etc., on certain specified days in the year. It is also usual for people to visit one of these places if they are cured of some disease or if their desires are fulfilled, etc. Those that can afford also visit places like Kashi and Rameshwaram and less frequently, Kedarnath and Badrinath.

The important Muslim festivals are *Bakrid*, *Shab-e-Barat* and *Ramzan*. Both the Catholic and Protestant Christians observe Christmas, the birth-day of the Christ, and Easter, the day of Resurrection.

Cultural life

The social and cultural life of a people is reflected in the group-games, general means of recreation, intra-family relationships, communal festivals, *jatras* and the like.

Children in this district play a variety of indigenous and inexpensive games. Some of these are *chini phani*, *kalli patti*, *mara-kothi*, *ane-kirr*, *sari-badagi*, *kuntata*, etc., but now-a-days these games are being replaced by western games like foot-ball and cricket. Among girls *kolata* is a common item of entertainment. This is also played on a large scale in a beautiful manner on festive occasions. Girls also play, both individually and in groups, *haggada ata* or skipping over a rope. Other minor games of girls are played with pebbles, *gajjaga* (a kind of nut), tamarind seeds and dolls. Major Indian games for boys are *kho-kho* and *kabaddi*, which, in this district as in the districts of North Karnataka, is called *hututu*.

While children engage themselves in these games, the grown ups, particularly the orthodox ones, spend their afternoons in listening to *puranas*, *kirtanas*, *bhajans*, etc. These are mostly religious in character and vary according to communities. In the villages an additional attraction is the singing of *lavanis*. Some of the villages have professional singers of *lavanis*. *Bayalata* or *Bayala Nataka* is a major form of recreation particularly in the rural areas. This type of drama is staged often on festive and *jatra* days. The play is enacted on a platform erected in an open space. It starts late at night and continues till day-break. The themes are almost always *pauranic* in content and are very popular among the villagers.

The youths in towns usually play foot-ball, cricket and hockey. Of the indoor games, the games of cards and carrom are the most popular ones. Some of the office-goers usually spend some time of their evenings in the clubs which are formed in almost all towns. In addition to these, there are also art, dramatic and other associations which help not only their members but also the public at large to relieve the monotony of life.

Jatras

The following are some of the important *jatras* in the district:—

(1) The Tipperudraswamy car festival held for three days in the month of *Phalguna* at Nayakanahatti in Challakere taluk.

(2) The Veerabhadradevara *jatra* held for three days in *Phalguna* at Kotigudde in Jagalur taluk.

(3) The fair at Kalledevarapura in Jagalur taluk held about the month of April.

(4) The *Ammana jatra* held for seven days from the full moon day of *Chaitra* at Bevinahalli in Hiriyur taluk.

(5) The *jatra* of Terumalleshwara celebrated for a week from the full moon day of *Magha* at Hiriyur.

(6) The Murugimatha festival on the 11th day of *Ashvina* at Chitradurga.

(7) The Chaudeshwari *jatra* about the month of March at Gurusiddapura in Jagalur taluk.

(8) The Maremma's *jatra* held for five days in *Vaishakha* at Marikanive in Hiriyur taluk.

(9) The Maremma's *jatra* held in *Vaishakha* at Yeraballi in Hiriyur taluk.

(10) Durgamma's *jatra* held once in two years in *Phalguna* at Davangere.

(11) The *jatra* of Sangameshvara held about the month of March at Harihar.

(12) The *jatra* in honour of Nunke Bhairava held for three days in *Vaishakha* at Nunkebhairavagudda near Molakalmuru.

(13) The car festival of Ramadevaru held for three days about the month of March at Bommaghatta in the Molakalmuru taluk.

(14) Kamplidevara *jatra* held in Molakalmuru taluk for three days in the month of Magha by the Myasa Bedas.

(15) The Maremma's *jatra* held for four days in the month of *Bhadrapada* at Gowrasamudra in Challakere taluk.

Religion and Caste

Of the total population of 10,94,284 of the district, Hindus, according to the 1961 Census, formed a very large majority, their total number being 10,10,529. The next largest community was Muslim, claiming as many as 78,117 persons. Then came the other religions, Christians numbering 3,215, Jains 2,386 and Sikhs 37. The 1951 Census figures for these communities were 8,05,396, 59,984, 1,323, 1,656 and 11 respectively. The community that conspicuously added to its population during the ten years from 1951 to 1961 was the Christian. Their number according to 1941 Census was only 668.

The strength of the Scheduled Castes in the district in 1961 was 2,03,848 consisting of 1,04,774 men and 99,074 women. Of these, 1,87,419 lived in villages and 16,429 in towns. The following were the castes recognised as Scheduled Castes in the district :

(1) Adi-Andhra.
(2) Adi-Dravida.
(3) Adi-Karnataka.
(4) Banjara or Lambani.
(5) Bhovi.
(6) Dakkaliga.
(7) Ganti Chor.
(8) Handi Jogi.
(9) Kepmari.
(10) Koracha.
(11) Korama.
(12) Machala.
(13) Mochi.
(14) Sillekyatha.
(15) Sudugadu Sidda.

The number of persons enumerated under Scheduled Tribes in the district in 1961 was 152, of whom 103 were men and 49 women. The following were the tribes recognised as Scheduled Tribes in the district :

(1) Gowdalu.
(2) Hakkipikki.

(3) Hasalaru.
(4) Iruliga.
(5) Jenu-Kuruba.
(6) Kadu-Kuruba.
(7) Malaikudi.
(8) Maleru.
(9) Soligaru.

Hinduism

The word 'Hindu' is rather wide in its connotation. The two dominant sections coming under Hinduism in this district may be said to be Brahmanism belonging to the Vaidika school and Veerashivism, which while having many points in common with that school, in many others radically differs from it. Brahmanism is represented by the various sects of Brahmins and Veerashaivism by a number of castes professing the Veerashaiva or Lingayat religion. Lingayat is generally looked upon as a *caste but it would be more correct to treat it as a religion or a way of life. Lingayat is a general designation for several castes, the members of which wear the *Linga* on their bodies after due initiation. Thus included in that name, are many castes. Each caste, though professing the Lingayat religion, follows its own customs and usages, of course, with some notable exceptions; for instance, at the Lingayat marriages and funerals only a Jangama can officiate. The burying of the dead person among sections professing that faith is usually in the sitting posture; no *shraddha* is observed, nor any of the *pancha-sutakas* or five impurities; and animal food and alcoholic drinks are abstained from. From all these facts it is clear that the term Lingayat has more a religious than a caste significance.

Among the Brahmins mainly two sects are represented in the district, *i.e.*, Smartha and Madhwa, the others being represented to a negligible extent. The Smarthas derive their name from Smriti, the code of revealed or traditional law. They worship the triad of Brahma, Shiva and Vishnu under the mystic syllable 'Om' and while admitting all of them to be equal, exalt Shiva as their chief deity. Philosophically, they hold the pantheistic Vedanta doctrine of *Advaita* or Non-dualism. The founder of the Smartha sect was Sri Shankaracharya. The distinct marks of an orthodox Smartha Brahmin are three parallel horizontal lines of pounded sandalwood or *vibhuti* on the forehead, often with a round red spot in the centre.

The Madhwas are called so because of Madhwacharya, the founder of the sect. They worship Vishnu and profess the

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* and so is Brahmin and therefore both of these have been included in the section on 'Castes and Tribes' also for describing certain other aspects of the sects.

doctrine of *Dwaita* or dualism. An orthodox Madhwa Brahmin is known by a black perpendicular line from the junction of the eye-brows to the top of the forehead with a dot in the centre.

Veerashaivism

Veerashaivism as a faith has its basis in the original Shaivism and was largely built on the sayings and teachings of Sri Basaveshwara and other *Shivasharanas*. The main features of the faith are what are known collectively as *Ashtavaranas* and *Shatsthalas*. *Ashtavaranas* or the eight emblems comprise the aids to faith and protection against sin and evil. They are (1) devotion to a *guru*, (2) worship of the *linga*, (3) reverence to the *Jangamas* or priests, (4) use of *vibhuti* or holy ash, (5) wearing of *rudraksha*, (6) use of *padodaka* or holy water, (7) partaking of *prasada* or sanctified food and (8) *mantra* or the uttering of a mystic formula called *panchakshari*. Many of these observances are to be found in Brahmanism also. *Shatsthalas* may be described as the six stages of elevation towards union with the Lord; they are *bhakta*, *mahesha*, *prasadin*, *pranalingin*, *sharana* and *aikya*. There are three degrees of manifestation of the deity, some times described as the *Bhavalinga* corresponding to the spirit, *Pranalinga* corresponding to the subtle body, and *Ishtalinga* corresponding to the material body. The wearing of a *linga* on the person is the distinctive external mark of the Veerashaiva faith. The doctrines and rules of Basaveshwara's faith were that there is one God who guards man from evil, that between this God and his worshipper there is no need of middleman and no need of sacrifices, penances, pilgrimages or fasts.

Animism

Another form of popular religion is what is known as animism or spirit-worship. This consists of firstly a belief in the existence of spirits, secondly of a fear of the evils which they inflict and thirdly their propitiation through offerings. The spirits worshipped are many and usually take the form of goddesses who are referred to as 'mothers'. Among the most common goddesses of this type are Mariyamma, Durgamma, Yellamma, Gangamma, Matangamma and Kalamma. Each village has its own goddess known as *grama-devata*. While some of these '*ammas*' are associated with epidemics like cholera and small-pox (*e.g.*, *Mari* is the goddess of small-pox), the function of the *grama devata* is often to protect her devotees from such epidemics. This belief is widely prevalent among some classes in the district; but it has its votaries among the other classes too. There is no priesthood attached to it; nor those who act as priests belong to any hereditary classes. Ordinarily, the head of the family or that of the community officiates. Sacrifice is considered an important doctrine of this cult. The details of the sacrifice vary greatly and until recently, they "were not infrequently of a somewhat revolting character". But now they have almost become

things of the past; even ordinary animal sacrifice has now become considerably less prevalent.

Self-torture, in various forms, was another feature of this cult. Of these, hook-swinging or 'Sodi' as it is called in Kannada, which is referred to in some inscriptions of this district, is now out of vogue. Passing of a metal wire through the jaws has also become rare. Fire-walking, however, is still more or less in vogue.

Jainism

The Jains are dispersed throughout the country and their number in the district according to the 1961 census was 2,386. There are two sects among the Jains, *viz*., the Digambars and Svetambars. The Yatis form the religious order. The moral code of the Jains holds existence as divisible into two heads, namely, *Jiva* (life) or the living and sentient principle and *Ajiva* (inanimate) or the various modifications of inanimate matter. These are imperishable, though their forms and conditions may change. Their philosophical tenet is designated *Syadvada* as we can neither affirm nor deny anything absolutely. Absolute knowledge is attained only by *Thirthankaras*. All others have only relative knowledge. *Dharma* is virtue and *Ahimsa* is the highest virtue (*ahimsa paramo dharmah*). *Adharma* is vice. Although their objects of worship are the *Thirthankaras* they pay their devotion to some of the gods of the Hindu pantheon also. They visit a temple where the image of any *Thirthankara* is installed, walk round the image three times, make an offering of fruits and flowers, and sing praises in honour of the saint. Their *japa* is known as *Panchanamaskara* and they make obeisance to *Arhanta, Siddha, Acharya, Upadhyaya* and *Sarva Sadhu*.

Islam

The Muslim population in the district was 78,117, according to the 1961 census. They are spread both in the urban and rural areas. Most of the Muslims in the district belong to the Sunni sect. There are five classes of Muslims, *viz*., *Mughals, Syeds, Sheiks, Pathans* and *Pinjaris*. The essential Muslim beliefs are six in number, namely, faith (1) in one God, Allah, (2) in angels, (3) in the Quran, (4) in the Prophets, (5) in judgment, paradise and hell, and (6) in the divine decrees. The five primary duties called the five pillars of Islam are (1) repetition of the creed, Kalimah, every day, (2) prayer, (3) fasting during the month of Ramzan, (4) the giving of alms and (5) pilgrimage to Mecca. Apart from Ramzan, two other principal public feasts are the Bakrid and the Shab-e-Barat. According to Islam, the daily prayer called *Namaz* has to be performed five times a day and men should go to the mosque to say their prayers. In addition to the usual *Namaz* of every day, special *Namaz* is held in the mosques every Friday and generally the Muslims make it a point to attend this prayer. The

Kazi is the main religious dignitary of the Muslims. He has no judicial powers now, his main duty being to lead the *Jumma* and *Id* prayers and to officiate at the marriage and funeral ceremonies.

Christianity

Among the Christians of the district, there are both Catholics and Protestants. The number of Christians, as has already been indicated, has been steadily increasing.

Catholics are the followers of Jesus Christ. They believe in one God in three persons, *viz.*, Father, Son and the Holy Ghost, as they believe these three comprise one God. They owe their allegiance to the Holy Church founded by Jesus Christ and entrusted to Peter, the first Vicar (the Pope). The Pope is the supreme head of the Catholics. His headquarters are at the Vatican city in Rome. They worship God in these three persons and venerate saints and follow the teachings and gospels preached by Christ contained in the 'Bible', which is their holy book.

Protestant Christians are those who follow the teachings of Jesus Christ, as found in the 'Holy Word of God'—Bible. They believe Jesus Christ as the Lord and Saviour, and have faith in His death, resurrection and ascension. They believe in His second coming and judgment. They have faith in the Holy Trinity, Nicene creed and Apostles' creed. Their faith and order of worship depend on two important commands given by Jesus Christ:

> "The Lord, our God, is one Lord and thou shalt love the Lord, thy God with all thy heart and with all thy soul and with all thy mind, and with all thy strength and thou shalt love thy neighbour as thyself".

Castes and Communities

The principal castes and communities of the district are as follows:—

Agasa

The Agasa or the washerman caste is divided into two main divisions, Kannada and Telugu, who do not inter-marry. Agasa was a member of the village hierarchy, his office being hereditary and his remuneration usually being 'grain-fees' from the raiyats or the cultivators. He was also employed as a torch-bearer on marriage and other ceremonial occasions. The Agasas seldom follow any other profession than that of washing. Widow re-marriage is prohibited. They worship *Bhoomadeva* and *Ubbe*, i.e., the steam arising from the cauldron in which they boil the clothes for washing. The dhobis, though a sub-division of the caste, appear to be immigrants from Orissa. They are Vaishnavites and occasionally engage Brahmins as their priests. They burn their dead and perform *shraddhas*.

The Banajigas are mostly traders, their name being derived from the word 'vanijya' meaning trade. But many of them have now taken to agriculture. The Banajiga community may be divided into three distinct classes—Panchama Banajigas, Jain Banajigas and Telugu Banajigas, who do not inter-marry. The Panchama Banajigas are Lingayats. Widow marriage is prohibited. The Telugu Banajigas are either Shaivites or Vaishnavites, these groups also being mutually exogamic. They eat animal food but usually drink no liquors. Widow marriage is prohibited and the dead are buried. **Banajiga**

The Bedas are also called Nayakas or Nayakamakkalu and they call themselves Paleyagars. From the fact that Valmiki, the author of the Ramayana, is described as a Beda, the Bedas also style themselves as belonging to Valmikimata. They also claim that Kannappanayanar, one of the 63 devotees of Shiva, belonged to their caste. Though their traditional occupation is hunting, most of them have now taken to agriculture. Some of them are also employed as revenue and police peons. The village watchmen in various parts belong to this class. Many of this caste were soldiers in the armies of the old Vijayanagara kingdom and the kingdoms of the Paleyagars and Haidar Ali. They are Vaishnavites and worship all the Hindu deities. Widow re-marriage is usually not allowed. The Beda caste is divided into several endogamous groups : (1) Uru Bedas or Chinna Boyis, (2) Myasa Bedas or Pedda Boyis, (3) Ureme Bedas, (4) Monda Bedas, etc. The first of these live in villages. Hence their name 'Uru'. They form by far the largest division of the caste. The Myasa Bedas are mostly found in this district. It is an interesting sub-division in that its members present a strange and unique jumble of apparently antagonistic customs not usually found among any other Hindu classes. They live mostly outside the inhabited places, in temporary huts. Those customs seem to have been adopted by them when some of them were included in the hordes of Haidar Ali. At the same time, they observe other rites such as taking of *Panchagavya,* burning of the tongue with a neem stick, etc., which are customs pre-eminently Hindu. Another peculiarity about them is that they scrupulously avoid liquor of every kind, so much so that they do not even use materials connected with the date palm, even for building purposes. The Uru Bedas bury their dead whereas cremation prevails amongst the Myasa Bedas. **Beda**

Banjara (*See* under 'Lambani').

Bestas are the fisher folk of the district. Though fishing is their traditional occupation, a great many now follow lime-burning, cultivation and other occupations, these differences acting as bars to inter-marriage among them. The caste is divided into numerous exogamous sects which appear to be **Besta**

totemistic in origin. Widow re-marriage and divorce are allowed. The dead are usually buried.

Brahmin

As already mentioned there are Shaivites and Vaishnavites or Smarthas and Madhwas amongst the Brahmins of the district. Inter-marriage between them is not common. All the Brahmins, whether Shaivites or Vaishnavites, have, according to the *Sutras*, to go through sixteen *Samskaras* or rites, the most important of which are (1) *Garbhadana* or foetus-laying ceremony, known as *Shobhana* in the regional language; in short, it is a rite for the consummation of marriage; (2) *Pumsavana* or worship to secure the birth of a male child, performed at the end of the third month of pregnancy; (3) *Simantha* performed either in the fourth, sixth or eighth month of pregnancy with a view to warding off evils from foetus; (4) *Jatakarma* done immediately after the birth of the child before the navel cord is cut; (5) *Namakarana* or naming of the child on the 12th day after birth; (6) *Nishkramana* or taking the child out of the house in the third month; it is taken to a temple and well water is worshipped; (7) *Annaprashana* or feeding the child for the first time with solid food; (8) *Choula* or *Chudakarma* or the ceremony of tonsure; shaving the head except for one lock which is the chuda or crest; (9) *Upanayana* or investiture with sacred thread to be done in the eighth year, but now usually done much later and (10) *Vivaha* or marriage. In addition to these ceremonies, all Brahmins perform annual *shraddha*. They are also expected to perform every day the *Sandhya* services, the *Pancha Mahayajnas* comprising *Brahmayajna*, *Devayajna*, *Pitruyajna*, *Bhutayajna* and *Manushyayajna* and *deva puja*, *tarpana*, etc. Usually, in every day life only the head of the family performs the worship, his wife only assisting him. The initiated boys are expected only to perform *Sandhya* services twice a day. In the evening only the *Mangalarati* or the waving of the sacred flame is performed. The married ladies usually worship the Tulsi plant.

Golla

The Gollas are cow-herds and dairymen, but at present many of them are agriculturists. Among the Gollas there are two main exogamic divisions, Uru Gollas and Kadu Gollas. Their original language appears to have been Telugu but now they have adopted Kannada as their own language.

The Uru Gollas are divided into numerous endogamous units, one of them being Bokkasamu or Bigamudre, who were in former times the guards of the treasury. Even now the persons who open and lock the Government treasury and handle the money boxes are often known as Gollars. Among these, widow-marriage is not permitted. *Illatom* adoption is common. Divorce is allowed, though a divorced wife cannot re-marry. The dead are usually buried. The Gollas are usually Vaishnavites, some of

them becoming *dasas* and leading a mendicant life. The Kadu Gollas say that they are immigrants from Delhi and its neighbourhood. They speak Kannada and are divided into three endogamous sects which are again divided into different exogamous sects known after animals, plants and other inanimate objects. Widow marriage is not permitted. Divorce is allowed. The dead are usually buried.

Holeya The Holeyas are the chief agricultural labourers in the district. The caste is divided into several territorial and occupational subdivisions which do not inter-marry. Divorce is more or less easy. The dead are usually buried. The members of the caste generally live together.

Idiga The Idigas are said to be of Telugu origin, which language many of them still speak. Their traditional occupation is toddy-tapping, but many of them are now employed in household and other services. Some of them also hold land and are agriculturists. They worship all the Hindu deities including *Shaktis*. Widow re-marriage is allowed. They bury their dead.

Komati (*See* under 'Vaishya').

Kuruba The Kuruba is a caste of shepherds and blanket-weavers, a good number of whom, however, now follow agriculture. The caste is divided into three endogamous divisions, *Halu*, *Ande* and *Jadi* or *Kambli*. The Halu Kurubas abstain from liquor. Each of the three divisions is further sub-divided into several exogamous sects named after plants, trees, animals, etc., which are of totemic nature. Some of them have accepted the Lingayat religion. Widow re-marriage and divorce are allowed. The dead are usually buried. The caste is well-organised, being divided territorially, the head of each section being known as Gowda. Shaivism is professed by many but their common deity is Biredevaru.

Lambani The Lambanis or Lamanis or Banjaras may be classed among the gypsies of India. They are of good stature and fair-complexioned. They are a brachycephalous race, with oval face, black or brown eyes and straight nose. Theirs is a peculiar Indo-Aryan dialect, which has borrowed words from various languages. They live in detached clusters of huts called *Tandas* which are mainly pitched away from the villages and usually on high grounds. Their traditional occupation was the transport of grain and other produce by means of herds of pack-bullocks, especially in the hilly and forest tracts which are difficult of access. Due to the change in the mode of transport they were thrown out of their profession and they took to other means of livelihood. Their complete isolation from the ordinary population and their language unintelligible to others had enabled them to carry on

their own occupations. The Lambanis have *gosayis* or *gosavis* as their priests. The Lambani outcastes consist of a sub-division called *Dhalya* who are their drum-beaters and live in detached habitations. Among the Lambanis post-puberty marriage has been in vogue. Widow re-marriage freely prevails among them, and it is also customary for divorced women to marry again under the *Udike* form of marriage, which also obtains among some other castes. The Lambanis are Vaishnavites, their principal deity being Krishna. They also worship the goddess Banashankari.

Lingayat

The Lingayats do not perform *yajnas*. They follow a simplified system of daily and special ceremonies. The daily ceremonies consist chiefly of *Shivapuja* or *Linga-puja* or the worship of Shiva, in the form of Linga, while the special ceremonies consist of what are known as *Dasha-samskaras* or ten rites, some of them being similar to the Brahmanic rites. A Veerashaiva house-holder has also to observe the five *Acharas* in his daily life, namely, *Lingachara, Sadachara, Bhaktachara, Shivachara* and *Ganachara*, more or less similar in their object to the *Panchamahayajnas* of a Vaidika house-holder. One particular feature of this sect is the existence of an order of priests called *Viraktas*, in addition to the *Jangamas*. These *Viraktas* hold the highest position in the ecclesiastical order. Many towns have a *Virakta matha* built outside the town where the Swami leads a solitary, simple and spiritual life. The position of the *Virakta*, in short, is that of a pure sanyasi of the most exalted order. The Lingayats have played a great part in the history of Karnataka and to them is largely due the development of the Kannada language and literature. The Lingayats are engaged in various occupations but are largely traders and agriculturists, some of them being also in government and other services.

The Lingayats of this district are adherents of either of the two *Mathas*—the Murugharajendra *Matha* and Sirigere *Matha*—both of which are situated in this district.

Madiga

The Madigas sometimes call themselves as Matangas, *i.e.*, descendants of Matangarishi. A section among them is also known as Jambavas, *i.e.*, descendants of Jambava, one of the allies of Rama. Chitradurga is one of the districts of the State in which this caste is most numerous. Though by tradition the Madigas are workers in leather, very few of them actually follow that profession now. About a third of them are cultivators and many others are agricultural and other labourers. A few of them are also village servants and musicians. They speak Kannada or Telugu. These sections do not generally inter-marry. Each of these groups is divided into three endogamous divisions known as *Tanige Buvvadavaru* meaning the eating dish division, the *Hedige*

Buvvadavaru or the basket division and the *Mora Buvvadavaru* or the winnow section. The last of these is further divided into two sub-sects—one of single winnow and other of double winnows. These divisions are based on the manner in which the bride and the bridegroom eat the 'Buvva' (common marital meal), *i.e.*, eating in a dish, basket or a winnow. There is also another division known as Dakkalu. The Dakkalus form the hereditary bondsmen of the Madigas. The members of the Jambava section form the *gurus* of the Madigas. They have *mathas* in different parts of the State, one of them being at Kodihalli in the Hiriyur taluk of this district. They wear a *Linga* and mark their forehead with ashes and sandal paste. The Jambavas may marry girls from the other Madigas after subjecting them to some purificatory ceremony, but generally they do not give their girls in marriage to the other Madigas. The Jambavas claim to be immigrants from Cuddapah and many of them speak Telugu. The Madigas also pay reverence to Aralappa, said to be a contemporary of Sri Basaveshwara, as their patron saint. These various divisions have, in turn, numerous exogamous septs known after animals, plants, trees and other inanimate objects, several of them being totemic in nature. Divorce and widow re-marriage are allowed. The dead are usually buried. In matters of religion, they are also worshippers of village deities such as *Maramma, Morasamma* and *Matangamma,* the caste goddesses. They have priests of their own called *Tappattigas.* Some Madigas profess the Vaishnavite religion. As a caste, the Madigas are well organised under *Kattemanes* each with a head called *Dodda Yajamana* and a deputy called the *Chikka Yajamana.*

Neygi

Neygi is the common occupational name of a number of castes engaged in hadloom weaving. Following are the main sub-divisions :

(*a*) *Bilimaggas* (Bilimagga literally means white-loom) are engaged in the weaving of white muslin and other cloths. Some of them are Lingayats who do not inter-marry with non-Lingayats. The caste comprises several endogamous divisions. Widow re-marriage is allowed. The dead are buried.

(*b*) *Devanga* caste consists of two main linguistic sub-divisions, Kannada and Telugu, which do not inter-marry. The Kannada section has many further sub-divisions some of which are Lingayats. In some places widow re-marriage is allowed. Divorce is not in practice. The dead are usually buried. Though both Shiva and Vishnu are worshipped, their caste goddess is Chaudeshwari.

(c) *Khatri* is a caste of immigrant silk-weavers. They are Shaivites in religion and speak an Indo-Aryan dialect.

(d) *Patvegar* or *Pattegar* is another class of immigrant silk-weavers. They speak an Indo-Aryan dialect and worship all the Hindu deities, especially Shakti. The Patvegars and the Khatris do not inter-marry.

(e) *Sale* caste is divided into Padmasale, Pattusale and Shankusale. The Pattusales profess the Lingayat religion. The Padmasales are Vaishnavites. Their common caste deity is, however, Chaudeshwari. Neither widow re-marriage nor divorce is permitted. The dead are burnt or buried according to the faith followed.

(f) *Saurashtra* caste is also known as Patnuli and Jamkhanwala. According to tradition, they are immigrants from Gujarat and speak a language akin to Gujarati. They do not permit widow re-marriage. They profess Vaishnavism.

(g) *Senigar* is a class of immigrant weavers. They are all Lingayats.

(h) *Togata* is a Telugu caste of weavers. They are Vaishnavites by religion but also worship Chaudeshvari as the caste goddess.

Panchala

Panchala is a collective name of the artisan caste of goldsmiths, blacksmiths, stone-cutters and carpenters. The names of the sub-divisions are *Akkasale, Kammara, Kanchugara, Shilpi* and *Badagi*. These inter-marry, except occasionally in urban areas where the goldsmiths remain aloof from the blacksmiths. Widow re-marriage and divorce are not generally permitted.

Uppara

Traditionally, Upparas are earth-salt workers, but their chief callings at present are cultivation and labour. Many of them are also brick-layers in towns and some are lime-kiln burners. The caste has two linguistic divisions, Kannada and Telugu, who do not inter-marry. Each of these is further sub-divided into several exogamous septs of totemic origin. Widow re-marriage and divorce are allowed. The dead are usually buried. They are Vaishnavites by religion, their caste god being Channakeshava. They also worship the village deities.

Vaishyas (Komatis)

The Vaishyas or Komatis are mostly found in towns and large trade centres. The majority of them are worshippers of Shiva and a few of Vishnu; but their chief deity is goddess Kannika

Parameshvari. Both the divisions inter-marry. Most of them are merchants, jewellers or money-lenders. One peculiar custom of this caste is the obligation of a boy to marry his maternal uncle's daughter.

Vodda Vodda is a caste of earth-workers, well-sinkers, tank-diggers and stone-dressers. They are divided into three endogamous divisions, namely, *Kallu* or *Uru* or *Bandi Voddas*, *Mannu* or *Bayalu* or *Desada Voddas* and *Uppu Voddas*. Each of these sub-divisions is divided into several exogamous totemic septs. Widow re-marriage and divorce are allowed. They worship Lord Venkateshwara of the Tirupati hills.

Vokkaliga "Vokkaliga" is the general name given to the cultivating castes. It is really made up of several castes amongst whom inter-marriage is not generally in vogue. The name 'Vokkaliga' is said to have been derived from *vokku*, which means in Kannada 'threshing the grain out of ear-stocks'. The various component castes that come under Vokkaligas in general are Gangadikara Vokkaliga, Morasu Vokkaliga, Nonaba Vokkaliga, Hallikara Vokkaliga, Hal Vokkaliga, Sada Vokkaliga, Kunchiga Vokkaliga and others. There are several endogamous and exogamous divisions amongst these castes. Traditionally their chief occupation has been agriculture. In recent decades they have taken up several other occupations also and have progressed in many fields.

Gangadikaras worship both Shiva and Vishnu as also the various village deities. Widow remarriage and divorce have been in vogue. The practice of *manevalatana*, i.e., affiliation of a son-in-law in the family, was prevalent among them. The dead are usually buried. The Morasu Vokkaligas, sometimes also known as Hosadevara Vokkalu, had a well-organised caste organisation, each group having a *kattemane* with a Gauda or Yajamana as its head. Traditionally, divorce is not permitted. They worship Shiva under the name of Bhaire Devaru. The Hallikara Vokkaligas were largely engaged in the rearing of cattle.

The Sadas are found chiefly in Chitradurga and Shimoga districts. They appear to have been originally Jains; many of them now profess the Lingayat and Brahmanic religions. The Jain section worships the *Tirthankaras* as also Hindu gods. Widow re-marriage has been in practice in the Lingayat section. The Sadas are vegetarians and abstainers. They had the usual *kattemane* form of caste organisation. A section of the Kunchigas or Kunchitigas also follow the Veerashaiva religion. Many of the Kunchitigas have taken up occupations other than agriculture. Widow re-marriage was not generally in vogue and those who remarried formed a different *salu* or line by themselves. The dead are usually buried. The name 'Nonaba' has been derived from Nolambavadi, an ancient kingdom which covered principally

the present Chitradurga and Tumkur districts. Even now it i in these parts and a little to the west that the Nonabas largel reside. They are Veerashaivas by faith.

Caste Panchayats

Caste Government of some kind or the other was universa in the past. Its powers and jurisdiction have been mostly take away from them by the civil courts. At present the caste pancha yats usually consider questions relating to marriage, admission o outsiders into the caste and like matters. Their hold on thes matters too is, of course, becoming less and less, gradually. Thes panchayats are of two kinds. One of them is presided over by th Swamijis of recognised *Mathas* such as those of Sringeri, Uttarad Vysaraya, etc., among the Brahmins and the Murugharajendr Matha and the Sirigere Matha among the Lingayats. In the othe kind of caste panchayat, the Headman of the caste resident in eac village decides disputes as they arise. He is variously calle as Gowda, Setty or Yajamana. The office of the Headman i hereditary, and the assembly of castemen he convenes is know as *Kattemane*. He is usually assisted by his deputies (as amon the Bedas) or by assessors (called *Buddhivantas*) in his work (a among the Voddas).

Funerals

The dead are either buried or cremated. Cremation is univer sal among Brahmins, Banjaras and Komatis. The priestly sectio among the Helavas and other Vaishnavite castes also burn thei dead. Occasionally, aged men among the Holeyas are als cremated. Those dying from communicable diseases are als usually cremated. Among some castes, for instance, the Upparas Voddas, Madigas, Agasas, Telugu Banajigas and a few other the body is disposed of by what is known as *Kallu Seve* (or stone service). This consists of the body being placed on suitabl ground and being heaped over with stones so as to form a mound The generality of castes bury their dead with the head turned t the south. Lingayats and some other castes including Vaishnavit Holeyas bury their dead in the sitting posture. The Lingayat Devangas, however, bury in the lying posture. Amongst th Muslims the dead are buried in the sleeping posture on the back with the face towards Mecca. The Christians also bury their dea in the sleeping posture.

CHAPTER IV

AGRICULTURE AND IRRIGATION

THE total geographical area of the district according to professional survey is 26,71,242 acres, out of which 12,80,236 acres were put to agricultural use, giving a percentage of about 48, in 1964-65. Of the cultivated area, ten per cent was single-cropped and 30 per cent double-cropped. About 12 per cent of the total area was under forests. The rainfall ranges between 18 inches and 26 inches per year, the lowest being in Challakere taluk. The average rainfall of the district is 22.81 inches (579.3 mm.), 95 per cent of it falling between May and October of the year.

The following table gives a picture of the land utilised in the district during the year 1964-65 for farming purposes.

In acres

Taluk	*Total area*	*Cultivated area*	*Groves or orchards*	*Forests*	*Permanent pastures*	*Barren land*	*Cultivable waste*
Chitradurga ..	3,39,549	2,19,425	5,601	29,722	45,900	11,010	4,832
Challakere ..	5,09,579	2,32,979	29	7,243	63,999	30,413	49,671
Davangere ..	2,36,382	1,67,895	996	5,787	13,086	4,087	3,603
Harihar ..	1,19,964	93,940	540	3,444	5,869	4,109	143
Holalkere ..	2,71,403	1,27,966	3,801	22,017	70,001	14,493	1,500
Hosadurga ..	3,53,038	1,46,420	44	47,964	70,263	1,250	13,027
Hiriyur ..	4,20,309	1,73,420	16,996	29,525	68,668	..	14,246
Jagalur ..	2,38,509	31,789	7,738	31,308	23,839	5,486	743
Molakalmuru	1,82,509	86,402	652	36,803	34,251	483	2,126
Total ..	26,71,242	12,80,236	36,397	2,13,813	3,95,876	71,331	89,891

The total cropped area in the district is classified as irrigated and unirrigated. The total extent of land covered by irrigation

is tabulated under different sources of irrigation as follows (1964-65) :—

In acres

Taluk		Government canals	Private canals	Tanks	Wells	Other sources
Chitradurga	..	..	..	3,526	3,147	428
Challakere	..	3,586	996	12,896	21,236	1,984
Davangere	..	..	..	4,210	2,905	1,196
Harihar	..	..	..	300	320	340
Holalkere	..	..	..	3,880	1,605	143
Hosadurga	..	..	..	3,500	1,613	1,186
Hiriyur	..	17,973	..	6,592	6,812	810
Jagalur	..	..	..	6,047	655	810
Molakalmuru	..	1,365	..	5,390	6,880	975
Total	..	22,924	996	46,341	45,173	7,872

From the above table it is seen that out of a total cultivated area of 12,80,236 acres in the district, the extent of land covered by irrigation is 1,23,306 acres and the rest of the district depends solely on rains.

Cultivated Area

About 70 per cent of the total area under cultivation is annually sown with food crops. The district is surplus in jowar and ragi and largely deficit in paddy. Since the major portion of the cultivated area is entirely dependent on the south-west and the north-east monsoons, the production of dry crops varies from year to year.

Forests

Out of a total geographical area of 26,71,242 acres in the district, the extent of forests in 1964-65 was only 2,13,813 acres giving a percentage of about 12. The district itself is plain country with very little thick forest. The State forests included 8.0 square miles of plantations, 7.04 square miles of reserve lands under Section 35 of the Mysore Forest Rules and 1.95 square miles of minor forests. The forests in the division consist mostly of the shrub growth and exploitation of the same for fuel and agricultural implements is increasing year by year, due to increase in population. The over-exploitation of the forests has resulted in substantial denudation. As the soil and vegetation are inter-dependent, one cannot exist without the other. The improvement of the soil mainly depends on the growth of vegetation. The forest authorities are concentrating on protection of existing forests and on afforestation

Forestry schemes undertaken at various stages include the working plan methods, the object being to bring the areas not covered by working schemes under proper scientific management. During the Third Plan period, one hundred acres of grazing area was improved at a cost of Rs. 0.10 lakh. In the forest consolidation scheme, the forest reserves in charge of the Revenue Department were taken over by the forest authorities in order to bring the area under proper management. A new scheme called Farm Forestry to create fuel reserves was taken up. Under this scheme, a selected area of 8,750 acres was brought under development at a cost of Rs. 2.19 lakhs. Afforestation, soil conservation and other developmental activities covering an area of 5,000 acres was taken up to check soil erosion. Agave hedges were put up in areas vulnerable to soil erosion. Sisal growing on a large scale was pursued with vigour so as to bind the soil and this proved to be of economic value. A sum of Rs. 16.57 lakhs was spent during the Third Plan period for various development activities including forestry schemes and soil conservation schemes. As against the financial allocation of Rs. 5,04,285, a sum of Rs. 2,89,293 was spent on soil conservation schemes bringing about 5,500 acres under the benefit of this scheme. Agave trees were planted along a length of 7½ miles while 50 acres were brought under cashewnut plantation.

The main source of forest revenue in the district is from fuel and minor forest produce. The revenue realised from the year 1960-61 to 1964-65 is indicated below :

Year	Rs. P.
1960-61	1,02,360.14
1961-62	1,64,388.85
1962-63	1,23,930.39
1963-64	1,23,821.10
1964-65	1,35,507.32

The development of minor forest produce engaged the attention of the department with a view to increasing the forest revenue in the district.

Irrigation

Chitradurga district is an arid tract, having only two rivers of any importance, the Vedavati or Hagari and the Tungabhadra, running for a few miles along the north-western boundary. The Vedavati enters the district in the south-west and flows in a north-east direction to a few miles beyond Hiriyur. During the hot season, the river is almost dry, but supplies water to a number of wells, sunk in the sandy bed. There are in all 350 tanks, both major and minor, in the district. Among the major tanks are Bheemasamudra tank in Chitradurga taluk, Parashuramapura tank

in Challakere taluk, Dharmapura tank in Hiriyur taluk, Sangenahalli tank in Jagalur taluk, Tuppadahalli tank in Jagalur taluk, Anaji tank in Davangere taluk, Kodaganur tank in Davangere taluk and Muthugudur tank in Holalkere taluk.

To the western side of the Chitradurga taluk is the right series of tanks comprising the Tungabhadra chain. The Channagiri series runs in the central portion while the Vedavati series runs in the eastern portion. A few irrigation works, such as pick-ups and lift irrigation sets are noticed in this region. The Kathral tank in Chitradurga taluk has a command area of 416 acres of wet and 10 acres of garden land. The Bhimasagar Doddakere, the Hullur tank and the Jampalnaikanakote tank are used for irrigation.

A particular feature noticed in the irrigational methods adopted in Challakere taluk is the lifting up of the water from the Vedavati river, which flows in this area. The water thus lifted from the river is being utilised for agricultural operations on either side of the river. In addition to this, a number of inundation channels have been excavated from the main river. Minor irrigation plays a prominent part in this region. The Parashuramapura tank was specially constructed at a cost of Rs. 12 lakhs to augment the water resources of this arid taluk. The original command area of this tank was fixed at 974 acres. At no time has the tank been full. To overcome this deficiency, a feeder channel has been dug from the Narayanapura anicut. The Mirsabihally Ranikere tank is a new tank with an atchkat of 2,062 acres. The oldest tank in Challakere taluk is the Nayakanahatti Hirekere built by Sri Tipperudraswamy some 300 years ago. Among the other major tanks of this taluk, mention may be made of the Ramasagara tank (587 acres) and the Mannekote Kodihalli tank (368 acres).

Vanivilas Sagar

Right through the Hiriyur taluk, flow the Vedavati and Swarnamukhi rivers, affording irrigational facilities on a considerable scale. The Vedavati valley has been utilised to construct a reservoir called Vanivilas Sagar at Marikanive in memory of Her Late Highness Sri Vanivilasa Sannidhanadavaru. The river passing through the eastern line of the Chitradurga hills, enters a gorge and comes out in the open country near Hiriyur. As far back as 1,800 A.D., the spot attracted the attention of irrigation experts, who thought of constructing a dam across the gorge, to feed the adjoining arid expanse, known for its scarcity conditions.

The dam across the Vedavati river has been constructed near the Marikanive village and impounds water to irrigate about 28,000 acres. The actual work of the dam commenced in August 1898 and completed in August 1907. The length of the dam is 1,330 feet

while the height is 162 feet from the deepest bed. The water-spread of the reservoir extends to 21,460 acres. Two channels, one to the right running to a length of 29 miles and another to the left running to a length of 30 miles have been excavated. The estimated supply of water to the reservoir is 25,000 units or 6,500 million cubic feet. This reservoir is one of the earliest irrigation works in the old Mysore State. In addition to this irrigational facility the Hiriyur taluk has major and minor tanks. The Dharmapura Amanikere is the largest in the area, with a command area of 980 acres. The Vaduvalli tank and the Bharampura Kumbarakattekere are also fairly large tanks.

Gayatri Reservoir

A new reservoir called the Gayatri Reservoir has been constructed across the Swarnamukhi river, a tributary to the Vedavati. This dam site may be approached through a deviation road from the Bangalore—Chitradurga road, not far off from Hiriyur town. The command area of this reservoir is about 3,000 acres.

Another anicut called the Narayanapura anicut has been constructed across the Vedavati river near Siddaiyanakote. A masonry anicut of a total length of 525 feet, with a high co-efficient weir, has been put up. The command area of this reservoir is 4,000 acres.

The construction of a dam across the Bhadra river near Lakkavalli in Chikmagalur district has opened up vast potentialities for converting the dry areas of several taluks in Chitradurga district into smiling green paddy fields or sugarcane plantations. The right bank channel of the Bhadra Reservoir is aligned for a length of 62 miles, at which point, two branch canals are taken off, one in the direction of Harihar called the Malebennur branch channel and the other in the direction of Davangere called the Davangere branch channel. The Malebennur branch channel is designed to irrigate an extent of 35,000 acres in Harihar taluk. The other branch, Davangere branch channel, is designed to irrigate about 56,000 acres in Davangere taluk and 16,000 acres in Harihar taluk. This irrigation facility of the Bhadra Reservoir Project helps the district to irrigate about 1.07 lakhs of acres under a system of approved crop planning for growing paddy, sugarcane, semi-dry and garden crops.

Irrigation Wells

Irrigation wells are scattered all over the district and are constantly in use. In Molakalmuru, Challakere, Hosadurga and Holalkere taluks, large wells with stone revetments are to be seen. These large wells are usually dug in the tank beds, more or less as a supplementary source, depending mostly on the percolation water of the tanks. Under well irrigation, various crops like paddy, ragi, jowar, sugarcane are raised. There were in all about 15,000 wells with a total atchkat area of 45,173 acres (1964-65).

The water level in the district is nowhere uniform. It varies in different taluks, Hosadurga being most favourable with a water table of 10 to 12 feet only in the confines of the Vedavati basin. In other places, water is obtained between 25 to 30 feet from the ground level.

Lift Irrigation

Lift irrigation has been given a prominent place all along the Vedavati, Tungabhadra, Chikkahagari and Syagalahalla basins.

The following statement indicates the extent to which this facility is used in various taluks of the district.

Taluk	*Number of lifts*	*Atchkat in acres*
Hiriyur	136	544
Challakere .. .	74	222
Harihar	75	225
Davangere	25	75
Hosadurga	5	20
Molakalmuru	16	30

The average atchkat for each lift is about three acres.

It has been realised that the present water source in the Vanivilas Sagar is inadequate to meet the irrigational needs of the district. As the catchment area of the Vedavati river is limited, the State Government has prepared a new scheme to divert the waters of the Yagachi river into the Vedavati river at a total cost of Rs. 8 crores.

Soils

The district has been blessed by nature with a fertile black soil rich in bases having a high water-holding capacity. The black soils found in a wide area in the district are particularly suited for rain-fed crops like short-staple cotton, groundnut, jowar and *tur* dhal. Soil tests conducted by the Soil Testing Laboratory, Bangalore, have proved that the soils in the district are found to contain a high concentration of soluble salts which are either critical for growth or critical for germination. The potash content in the soils of the district is medium to very high. As regards phosphorous content, it is low to medium and indicates the need for application of phosphatic fertilisers. Though the total soluble salts are fairly within controllable limits in many of the other districts, it is not so in this district because of the dry pattern of the land. The black soil content in the area tends towards alkalinity. In the eastern parts of the district, river alluvium of good quality is found along the Tungabhadra and its tributaries. In the atchkat area under major tanks, rich clay soils are found which, after successive cultivation, manuring and frequent additions of good soil have greatly improved in fertility.

Extensive areas of this type of clay soil are found in several tank-fed irrigation areas. Alkaline lands of all degrees of alkalinity, both in dry situations and in low lying flats forming boggy marshes, are found in the Hiriyur taluk. These areas are put to agricultural operations by a process of reclamation on traditional lines known for ages. Considerable limestone and salts of soda such as carbonate and chloride and even nitre are obtained from these soils. Even wet lands under tank atchkats are mildly alkaline but with proper drainage methods they are kept in good fertile condition.

The district, taken as a whole, has varied soil structures, black, red and medium black. The deep red loam variety is also found which is good for the growth of ragi.

More than 50 samples of various soil varieties were sent to the Soil Testing Laboratory at Bangalore from different parts of the district for analysis. The problem of salinity is grave and is increasing annually. Scientific observations have revealed the urgent necessity to reclaim these areas lest they should become unfit for cultivation. The departmental officers are stressing the importance of drainage, the growing of green manure crops, the application of sulphur and gypsum and the use of organic matter in heavy quantities.

The water in the Vanivilas Sagar is highly alkaline as also in some tanks in Challakere and Molakalmuru. The use of these waters for irrigation has a deleterious effect on the fertility of soils in the atchkat region. The cultivators in the tank atchkats are growing double crops with the high saline content of the water. The staff of the Agricultural Department are advising the raiyats to grow green manure as second crop.

Agricultural seasons

The agricultural seasons in the district mostly depend on the rainfall and the climate. In the areas of Challakere, Hiriyur, Molakalmuru and Hosadurga, the rainfall averages from 18 to 25 inches. The Davangere, Harihar and Jagalur taluks receive about 20 to 28 inches of rainfall. In the taluks of Holalkere and Chitradurga the rainfall averages from 23 inches to 24 inches. Having regard to this pattern of rainfall, the seasons are divided into Kharif and Rabi seasons. Kharif crops are grown in Davangere, Harihar, Hosadurga and in some areas of Chitradurga, Jagalur, Challakere and Holalkere taluks. Rabi crops are grown in Hiriyur and parts of Challakere, Chitradurga and Holalkere taluks where the black cotton soils associated with lesser rainfall are found. In the areas where Rabi crops are grown, the rainfall is more between the end of September and the end of November. The cultivators in the district always look to the Kharif season for abundant crops. This season usually commences with the onset of the south-west monsoon and is familiarly known as the *Mungaru* season beginning in July. The Rabi season or the *Hingaru* season commences usually in September or October.

The practices of agriculture have changed in recent years due to the ever-increasing incentives offered by way of aids to scientific agriculture. New practices widely made known to the cultivating classes have enabled them to learn modern methods of agriculture and the application of new research data. As a result, more land has been brought under scientific method of cultivation. In 1944-45, paddy occupied 30,755 acres in the district. This increased to 35,510 acres in 1964-65. Like-wise, the acreage under ragi, which was 1,38,817 in 1944-45, stood at 1,41,855 in 1964-65. Jowar, the principal crop of the district, had an acreage of 2,56,424 in 1944-45 and in 1964-65, the total acreage under this crop was 3,50,908. Groundnut, another important crop, was being grown in 82,078 acres in 1944-45. In 1964-65, its acreage was 93,852. The acreage under cotton which was 59,990 in 1944-45 increased to 1,11,870 in 1964-65.

Out of a total cultivated area of 12,80,236 acres, nearly 9,59,000 acres were under food crops and the rest under non-food crops.

The sowing operations for the Kharif crops commence from April and continue until July. Lands are ploughed three to four times, followed by harrowing by the *heggunte*. Afterwards the *yedekunte* and *chippakunte* are used for inter-cultural operations. Once in three or four years the lands are ploughed with heavy type of plough.

Bili Jola (white jowar), Bengal gram and wheat are sown during the Rabi season. The lands are ploughed once and harrowed by the *heggunte*. Inter-cultural operations are done twice or thrice and crops are harvested between January and April.

In irrigated areas, paddy is grown thrice a year *viz.*, autumn or winter crop, second crop and summer or third crop.

Principal Crops

The principal crops of the district are as follows :—

Food crops.—Paddy, ragi, jola or jowar, navane, other millets and wheat.

Non-Food crops.—Oilseeds (groundnut, sesamum, niger and safflower), cotton, sugarcane and tobacco.

Garden crops.—Plantains, areca, coconut, fruits and vegetables.

The following table indicates the acreage under various crops in the district for the years 1944-45 and 1964-65 :—

	Acreage	
	1944-45	1964-65
Paddy	30,755	35,510
Wheat	1,640	1,139
Jola or Jowar	2,56,424	3,50,908
Ragi	1,38,817	1,41,855
Groundnut	82,078	93,852
Other oilseeds	1,54,309	1,53,152
Coconut	13,146	28,438
Sugarcane	2,276	5,676
Cotton	59,990	1,11,879
Tobacco	2,610	2,280

Jowar (Sorghum vulgare) is the most important dry food crop extensively grown in all the taluks of the district. In 1964-65, a total acreage of 3,50,908 was sown with jowar. The following table indicates the acreage talukwise both in Kharif and Rabi seasons. **Jowar**

Taluk	*Acreage*	
	Kharif	*Rabi*
Chitradurga	38,813	17,000
Challakere	37,119	4,180
Davangere	51,230	4,220
Harihar	37,440	418
Holalkere	23,415	4,395
Hosadurga	25,000	1,050
Hiriyur	10,000	40,000
Jagalur	30,100	991
Molakalmuru	25,000	537
Total	2,78,117	72,791

The preparation of the field for jowar does not differ much from that for ragi. Jowar is sown even in rough land. In the black cotton soils a shallow tilth is aimed at, the land generally being worked with *doddakunte* instead of the plough. Drill sowing is popular in the district. The drills used have from 3 to 6 tines with bowls made suitable to the size of the seed. The tines are about 9 inches apart. Jowar mixed with cattle manure is also sown by hand. In the case of jowar sown through drills, the seeds are

covered by means of *bolukunte*. If the sowings are done through ploughed furrows, the seed is covered by ploughing an additional furrow. Along with jowar, the raiyats raise a variety of crops like *avare* (cowgram or Dolichos lablab), *togari* (tur or Cajanus indicus), *menthya* (Fenugreek or Trigonella foenum groecum) and *alsande* (Vigna catiang). After the crop comes up, it is usual to give another ploughing close to each row. Threshing is done by using stone rollers. The harvested grain is preserved in underground receptacles, while the grain intended for seed is preserved elsewhere. The stalks are gathered as fodder. The yield per acre in irrigated tracts has beeen estimated at 1,000 seers or 10 pallas.

Rabi jowar is also grown to a considerable extent in the district. Vigorous drought-resistant varieties,preferably M-35-1 or selections from the Hagari farm, are recommended for sowings. The seeds are to be treated with powdered sulphur at the rate of three ounces per Bengal maund as a preventive against the dreaded smut disease. The seed so treated is sown with seed drill in rows 18 inches apart at the rate of four lbs. per acre. Chemical fertilisers such as ammonium sulphate and superphosphate to the extent of 100 lbs. per acre are used for better yields.

The raiyats in the district generally depend on the local Kharif seed for sowing purposes. The departmental officers have introduced D. 340, CO-9 and M. 35-1 Jowar varieties for Kharif and Rabi seasons. The performance of these new varieties has been uniformly good.

Ragi

Ragi (*Eleusine coracana*).—Next in order comes ragi which is a staple commodity in the dry regions of Chitradurga. This crop occupied an area of 1,41,855 acres in 1964-65. The following table indicates the acreage of ragi talukwise:—

Taluk	*Acreage*
Chitradurga	15,996
Challakere	13,515
Davangere	27,850
Harihar	216
Holalkere	33,598
Hosadurga	22,600
Hiriyur	14,500
Jagalur	12,300
Molakalmuru	1,280
Total	1,41,855

Ragi is grown both as a dry crop and also under tank-fed irrigation. The cultivation of irrigated ragi is also practised to a large extent in the district under wells. The best yield is obtained in rich black cotton soils. On good soils, which are well manured

and which receive sufficient rainfall, heavy yields are secured. Even with poor rainfall the crop has a moderate growth with fair yields. The crop is so hardy and drought-resisting that even under unfavourable conditions it grows.

Throughout the main ragi-growing areas in the district, the ploughing begins about the month of May. The ploughing is repeated several times according to the condition of the land. The ploughing is followed by working with *Doddakunte*. The weeds and stubbles are collected and burnt. Manure is applied at the rate of 10 cart loads per acre and the land is again ploughed once or worked with the *Kunte*. Sowing is done in some places by the broadcast method but mainly through drills. The drills used in the district are four-tined or six-tined. After the sowing, the land is worked with a brush harrow. In certain parts of the district, ragi is also transplanted on the dry land. For this purpose, the land is well prepared and manured. The land is worked both length-wise and cross-wise and the seedlings are planted at the corners of the squares. In transplanted fields, no mixed crop is grown.

Popular seed varieties of ragi like E.S. 11, R.O. 870, R. 009, K-1, R.O. 863 and H-22 are being recommended by the district agricultural authorities. These varieties are very promising and are being grown on large areas. Yields from these recommended varieties are higher. Among the irrigated varieties, the *gidda ragi*, popularly known as " Challakere gidda ragi ", is giving good yields. This variety is of short duration and is therefore helpful where double crops are grown.

Inter-culturing begins after the 14th day from the date of sowing and this is continued about three times at intervals. As the sowing is thick, thinning becomes absolutely necessary and the hoes play a prominent part. The hoeings bring the crop into lines, pull out the weeds and break up the surface crust. About 4 to 4½ months after sowing, the crop becomes ready for harvest. The crop is cut down by the ordinary sickle; the unbound sheaves are left on the ground for three days and then put in field stacks. Threshing is done either by beating out the grain or more generally by trampling it under the feet of bullocks. The stone roller is also used. The grain is then cleaned and stored.

Navane

Navane (*Setaria italica*).—Navane is a small-grained quick-growing millet coming to maturity in about 3½ months. This crop is grown in areas receiving moderate rainfall ranging from 20 to 30 inches annually. In dry-farming practices, this crop is followed by jowar, cotton or groundnut in the succeeding years. In the district of Chitradurga, navane is cultivated as a mixed crop with ragi. Navane is also raised as an irrigated crop. The seeds are generally broadcast at the rate of five to seven pounds per acre.

Sowing is done in June-July and harvested after about 100 days The yield of this crop is 600 to 800 pounds per acre. The strav of this crop is relished by the cattle. According to particular available in the Third Five-Year Plan Book relating to the district the total acreage under navane was 89,401.

Paddy

Paddy (Oryza sativa).—Paddy is grown in all taluks of th district occupying a total acreage of 35,510 in 1964-65. In 1923-2 the acreage under paddy in the district was 25,593. The acreag registered a rise in 1944-45 to 30,755 acres. Since then, there ha been a progressive increase in the acreage. The following tabl shows the acreage under paddy in different taluks during 1964-65

Taluk		*I Crop (Autumn)*	*II Crop (Winter)*	*III Crop (Summer)*
Chitradurga	..	..	..	1,345
Challakere	..	..	6,040	4,000
Davangere	..	..	1,800	1,300
Harihar	..	195	180	312
Holalkere	..	425	..	345
Hosadurga	..	1,250	..	1,300
Hiriyur	..	6,500	..	2,000
Jagalur	.	100	400	200
Molakalmuru	..	..	5,000	2,818

The popular varieties of paddy grown in the district ar Coimbatore Sanna, Bangarakaddi or Bangarakovi, Bangaratheeg and Halubbalu. In most of the tank and canal areas, the S. 31 variety, a selection from the Halubbalu short duration strain, i being used for double crop. This improved seed is popular through out the district and is giving very good yields. The S.R. B-2(a saline-resistant variety, has given quite a good performance i Hiriyur and Challakere taluks. Bangarakaddi (S-1092) also calle Bangarakovi and Coimbatore Sanna are being cultivated in th rainy season.

Level beds are important to impound water at a height whic should vary as the paddy crop grows. Several methods ar followed in the district in the sowing of paddy like broadcastin drills and through seed beds. Under the Vanivilas Sagar atchka every variety of dry and garden crop is raised in rotation wit paddy.

After harvesting the crop, the land is ploughed once. There after when the first showers are received about the month of Ma ploughing with a heavy bladed harrow is done twice or thrice an the clods are broken and weeds removed. Bullock-hoes having thre or more iron teeth are used in order to remove the weeds. Abou five cart loads of compost or cattle manure per acre are to b applied along with the first dose of chemical fertilisers. Then th

land is ready for sowing. Seeds are sown 12 inches apart at the rate of 40 lbs. per acre. Dibbling of paddy is also done. Three to four seeds are dibbled with 9 inches by 9 inches or 12 inches by 12 inches spacing depending upon the fertility of the soil. Fertilisers are applied in two doses, one at the time of sowing and the other after 2 or 2½ months. An ideal dose consists of a mixture of 75 lbs. of Ammonium Sulphate or 30 lbs. of Urea or 57½ lbs. of Ammonium Nitrate and 50 lbs. of Single Superphosphate. Along with paddy seeds, about 2 lbs. of Sann seeds per acre are also sometimes mixed to serve as green manure. The Sann seeds germinate and the plants grow along with paddy. By the middle of July when the Sann plants attain a height of 2 feet to 4 feet, they are broken and buried in the field. Timely inter-culturing is done to control weeds.

Water control is an important factor in paddy cultivation. Care is taken to avoid impounding of water in earlier stages. When the paddy crop attains a height of 12 to 14 inches, regular impounding of water is resorted to. In heavy soils water is let out once in 15 to 20 days and the land is allowed to dry a while when water is let in again. In poorly drained soils, shallow drains of 1½ feet to 2 feet deep and 1½ feet to 2 feet wide are dug at one or two sides of the plot. These drains are joined to the adjoining stream to let out the water. The drains help in leaching away harmful salts.

Wheat

Wheat (Triticum sativum).—Wheat is grown as a dry crop to a small extent in the black cotton soil tracts in the district. It is also raised as an irrigated crop in some parts. The usual sowing season is the *hingaru* months when the north-east monsoon is active. It is sown in plough furrows or broadcast. When it is an irrigated crop, wheat is sown usually in January. The acreage of wheat in the district has varied from year to year. In 1923-24, the acreage was 1,777 and in a decade the acreage fell to 1,331. In 1944-45 it was 1,640. In 1964-65, the acreage, however, had decreased to 939 in the district. Out of this total acreage of 939, the Hiriyur taluk alone had an acreage of 300.

Horsegram

Horsegram (Dolichos biflorus)—Kannada name *Hurali*.—The total acreage of this crop according to the district's Third Plan Book, was 1,40,171. Horsegram is grown in all the taluks of the district, as it generally comes up well even under adverse soil conditions. This is familiarly called the poor man's pulse. The crop is sown from May onwards. There are several varieties, but the muddy coloured variety is commonly cultivated. In dry lands, horsegram is grown as a single crop or as the second crop of the year, when cereals like jowar and ragi precede it. About 15 to 30 pounds of seed are broadcast per acre. The duration of the crop varies from 3 to 4½ months. This is also cultivated as a fodder crop. This pulse is commonly given to horses, after boiling it.

Tur

Togari or Tur (Cajanus indicus).—*Togari* is a very important pulse in daily use by all sections of the population. A total of 57,542 acres was under *togari* cultivation in 1964-65, the highest acreage being in Chitradurga taluk (11,600 acres). The following table indicates the extent in acres talukwise :—

Taluk			*Acreage*
Hosadurga	..	..	5,910
Challakere	..	..	6,785
Chitradurga	..	..	11,600
Molakalmuru	..	..	1,440
Davangere	..	..	5,050
Harihar	..	..	2,012
Holalkere	..	..	5,465
Jagalur	..	..	9,180
Hiriyur	..	..	10,100
	Total	..	57,542

Togari is grown in the district on all kinds of soils. Soils with a large lime content are said to yield the finest quality. The quality of the pulse consists in the quickness with which it softens on boiling. It is grown as a mixed crop both with ragi and jowar. When mature, the plants are cut at the base and are brought to the threshing floor and stacked. The pulse is threshed out by piling the crop in a thick layer on the floor and beating out with a stick. The stone roller used for threshing jowar and ragi is also used for threshing *togari*. The empty pods and chaff are used as fodder.

Sajje

Sajje.—Spiked millet (*Pennisetum typhoideum*) or *bajra* or *kunbu* is another extensively grown dry crop in the district. It is sown both as a pure and mixed crop along with ragi. The black cotton soil is congenial to this crop and it is cultivated in the same way as ragi. The total acreage during 1964-65 was 75,674 acres, of which Challakere taluk alone accounted for 40,218 acres.

Bengal gram

Kadale or Bengal gram (*Cicer arietinum*) is another pulse grown in the district. It is grown on the black cotton soils and on the beds of tanks when they dry up. This is grown as a pure crop and not mixed with any other crop. Being a cold weather crop, it is sown late after the north-east monsoon sets in. Inter-culturing is not resorted to as the crop comes to maturity in about three months. The heavy dews of the winter months are said to be greatly beneficial to the crop. Chitradurga and Hiriyur taluks are the two areas where this crop is extensively grown.

The following table indicates the acreage in 1964-65 in the several taluks of the district.

Taluk			*Acreage*
Hosadurga	..	..	780
Challakere	..	..	285
Chitradurga	..	..	2,800
Molakalmuru	..	..	6
Davangere	..	..	750
Harihar	..	..	53
Holalkere	..	..	365
Jagalur	..	..	1,600
Hiriyur	..	..	3,200
	Total	..	9,839

Considerable quantities of this crop are sold when it is partially ripe, to be eaten green or cooked as a vegetable. When ripe, the plants are pulled out and the pulse beaten out on the threshing floor.

The other pulses grown in the district are black gram (*uddu*), green gram and other minor pulses.

Non-food crops —Cotton

Among non-food crops grown in the district, cotton (*Gossypium herbaceum*) is the most important. It was grown on 1,11,887 acres during 1964-65. The following table indicates the acreage in each taluk.

Taluk			*Acreage*
Hosadurga	..	..	1,170
Challakere	..	..	13,680
Chitradurga	..	..	23,170
Molakalmuru	..	..	6,200
Davangere	..	..	18,800
Harihar	..	..	12,621
Holalkere	..	..	9,678
Jagalur	..	..	13,568
Hiriyur	..	..	13,000
	Total	..	1,11,887

Laxmi cotton, an imported variety from North Karnatak areas, has become very popular in the district. This particular variety occupies nearly half of the total acreage under cotton.

The Jayadhar variety, also imported from the neighbouring Dharwar district, is also popular. The Jayadhar variety is particularly suitable for the Rabi zone. Some other varieties like S-69, Co-4, B-40 and M.A-5 are also grown. In recent years, the new strains like M.A-5 and S-69 are extensively used instead of the old Laxmi and Jayadhar varieties as the new strains are giving better performances.

On the black soils, cotton is generally rotated with jowar. The land is ploughed at the onset of showers in the months of May and June. The heavy *doddakunte* is worked several times and the land provided with cattle manure. By August cotton is sown. The seed is prepared by rubbing it with wet earth and cow-dung which makes the fluff adhere to the seed. Sowing is done generally through drills. After the cotton plant is well above ground inter-culturing is given three times at intervals with the *hatti kunte*. From February onwards pickings are done. In Harihar, Davangere and Chitradurga, where good crops are raised, a fairly good yield up to 30 maunds per acre is obtained. In the taluks of Hiriyur and Challakere, Cambodia cotton is grown under irrigation.

Tobacco

Tobacco (*Nicotiana tabacum*) was grown on 2,280 acres in 1964-65, the major extent being in Hiriyur taluk where nearly 1,200 acres were planted with tobacco. The other tobacco areas are Challakere and Harihar taluks. Being an important money crop, tobacco is raised under well irrigation also. Dry land tobacco is cultivated in the black cotton soils mostly as the sole crop. The leaves begin to assume yellow colour in about four months from planting when they are harvested and sold for curing purposes.

Oilseeds

Oilseeds.—The total extent of land utilised for the production of oilseeds during 1964-65 was 1,53,152 acres distributed in all the nine taluks. The oilseeds raised in the district are groundnut, castor, gingelly, linseed and other minor seeds. The following table indicates the extent in several taluks of the district.

Taluk	*Acreage*
Hosadurga	32,336
Challakere	18,788
Chitradurga	11,633
Molakalmuru	15,347
Davangere	27,475
Harihar	15,007
Holalkere	13,796
Jagalur	10,895
Hiriyur	7,875
Total	1,53,152

Groundnut (*Arachis hypogoea*) is the most important oilseed occupying an area of 93,852 acres out of a total oilseed acreage of 1,53,152. Harihar, Davangere, Challakere and Molakalmuru taluks are important groundnut-growing areas. The Spanish variety of groundnut is very popular in the district. It is a short duration crop and gives good yields. In this variety, the oil content is more than in other varieties and as such it is favoured. A new variety called H.G-8 has been introduced. The crop matures in about 4 to 5½ months according to the variety. **Groundnut**

Sugarcane.—(Saccharum officinarum)—Sugarcane is mostly grown in the irrigated areas of Hiriyur taluk under the Vanivilas Sagar canals. The acreage under sugarcane in the district in 1964-65 was 5,406 of which 4,300 acres were in Hiriyur taluk alone. Molakalmuru was another taluk where sugarcane was grown, the acreage being 480. The most popular varieties grown in the district are H.M. 320, CO 419 and the local Rasadali. In the Vanivilas Sagar atchkat area, CO 419 is very popular. The H.M. 320 and Rasadali varieties are grown in tank atchkats. **Sugarcane**

Garden Crops.—Garden crops occupy an important place in the agricultural operations of the district. The important crops that are raised in the area are coconuts and arecanuts. Coconuts (Cocos nucifera) were raised extensively in Hosadurga taluk on an area of 21,018 acres, out of a total acreage of 28,438 in 1964-65. Mostly, the Srirampura and Mathodu varieties are grown in Hosadurga taluk which is contiguous with the district of Tumkur where also the best varieties are grown. In the dry land plantations, the seedlings are planted at distances of 36 feet each and at the rate of about 40 trees per acre. In the tank atchkat areas as many as 60 or 70 trees are planted in one acre. The seedlings are planted in pits of about a yard in depth filled with manure. The trees begin to yield from the seventh year onwards, more generally from the tenth and continue to yield, according to local belief, for 100 years. In a coconut plantation, all the trees may not be regular in bearing. Some of them may be alternate and shy bearers. So, there is a great variation in the annual yield of nuts. About 100 nuts per tree per year can be taken as the average yield of a plantation. **Garden Crops**

Arecanut (Areca catechu) occupied an area of 3,632 acres in the district in 1964-65 and is largely grown in Hiriyur and Holalkere taluks. The tank atchkats of Bhimasamudra and Bharamasagara in Chitradurga taluk are eminently suited for the crop. It is also grown to a large extent in the Vanivilas Sagar atchkat. Cattle manure is widely used in the maidan regions to get better yields. One or more subsidiary crops like betel-vines and plantains are also grown along with arecanut. **Arecanut**

Chillies

Chillies (*Capsicum annuum*), an important cash crop, are grown widely in Hosadurga, Harihar, Holalkere and Jagalur taluks. The area sown in 1964-65 was 18,842 acres, of which Harihar taluk alone had 3,975 acres. In black cotton soils, a better yield is obtained than in irrigated areas. The land for this crop is ploughed several times, working it with *kunte* which produces a fine and deep tilth. Seed-beds are raised in small nurseries in the backyards or gardens and transplanting is done afterwards. In this district, plough furrows are drawn lengthwise and crosswise at intervals of 18 inches and the intersections are supplied with cattle manure. After the plants take root, interculturing with special *kuntes* is done twice so as to remove the weeds. In about three months, green chillies are picked and about a month later the crop is ready for harvesting.

Betel leaves

Betel vine—(*Piper betle*).—Chitradurga district is known for the good quality of its betel leaves. They are largely exported to the neighbouring district of Bellary, to Anantpur in Andhra Pradesh and to Bombay. The owners of irrigation wells grow betel-leaves in well-kept vineyards from ½ to 1 acre in extent. Among the cash crops of the district, betel-leaves have a ready market and fetch good prices.

Horticulture

The common vegetables grown in the district are brinjal, lady's finger, cluster beans, sweet pumpkin and chillies. All these are cultivated as inter-crops on a small scale. Since 1952, after a branch of the Horticultural Department was opened in the district, the cultivation of cabbage, knol-khol, beetroot, cauliflower, peas and tomatoes has increased. These vegetables are grown in every taluk of the district. The efforts of the Horticultural Department are directed towards enthusing the public for raising kitchen gardens, for fruit cultivation and for floriculture. During 1964-65, several kinds of fruits were grown, banana being the principal crop having an acreage of 20,000, particularly in Hiriyur taluk. The following table indicates the extent of acreage of different fruit crops.

Fruit crops	*Area in acres*
Banana	20,000
Mango	385
Guava	230
Sapota	265
Musambi	260
Lime	130
Papaya	37
Grapes	17
Miscellaneous	100

During the Third Plan, some development schemes in respect of areca, coconut and cashew were introduced in the

district. The schemes at first were managed by the State Agricultural Department. During the year 1964, they became the responsibility of the Horticultural Department. The main object of the schemes is to bring more area under fruit crops and to revitalise old orchards.

Since 1965, a sustained drive to grow more fruits and vegetables is under way and this is pursued under intensive cultivation schemes. Making full use of available water resources, more areas are being brought under vegetables and fruits. The programme envisages intensive cultivation of vegetables in river beds, tank beds and paddy fields after the regular harvest. Different kinds of vegetable seeds are supplied to growers free of cost. Upto the end of 1965, a sum of Rs. 3,000 was spent on this programme. During 1965, a total of 632 kilograms of vegetable seeds were supplied to cultivators through the National Extension Service Blocks and Taluk Development Boards.

Scientific Agriculture

In recent years, attempts have been made to get greater yields from the land by the application of scientific agricultural methods. In the old days, the average agriculturist in the area did not take steps to develop his holdings by soil conservation methods. He rarely paid his attention to preparatory tillage operations. In respect of seed preservation and securing good seeds for sowing, he was indifferent. Sowings were done on untimely occasions without much regard for improved methods. Interculturing was rarely practised and the removal of weeds did not receive due attention. To remedy these defects, the Agricultural Department set about initiating reform measures to instil into the minds of the cultivating classes the efficacy and desirability of scientific cultivation to offset the deficiencies in food supply and get more out of the land. Soil conservation measures to prevent erosion of valuable land got priority in the scheme of scientific agriculture. The progress of soil conservation methods has been mentioned earlier in the chapter. Improved implements and appliances as approved by the department were introduced by means of propaganda. All farm refuses were converted into compost and compost pits were located far away from the dwelling places. Improved seeds were made available. Plant protection methods to obviate pests and diseases formed yet another urgent measure. Crop competitions and a Farmers' Forum were organized to give incentive to agricultural activities.

Agricultural implements and machines.—The plough is the most important implement of tillage. There is quite a variety of ploughs which are in use. All these ploughs are single-handled so that the ploughman holds and presses the plough at the handle with his left hand, while the right hand is free to drive his bullocks. The beam is so fixed in the plough bottom that the angle it makes can be widened or narrowed by driving a small wooden wedge or

clip below or above the joint. By this means the plough is adjusted to the size of the bullocks and depth of working. There are variations of course in the size and shape of the plough. In this district, the commonest variety of plough used is the black cotton soil plough used for very deep ploughing. In recent years this kind of plough has been substituted by large iron ploughs of different types.

For harrowing purposes, the *kunte* is the commonest implement with four flat blades or iron teeth passing through a horizontal log of wood which forms the frame. This is used immediately after ploughing.

The *doddakunte* is of a different type altogether. This is a bladed harrow. It is about three feet in length and is provided with a couple of pegs or standards, each about nine inches long and fixed one at each end of the frame pointing forwards and downwards. As it moves along the ground, its long blade cuts through the clods and effectively breaks them up. This implement is used only on the black soils.

The *bolukunte* is a much lighter type of the same implement having a longer and narrower blade and a lighter frame. This is used at a later stage in the preparation of the fields so as to break small clods and to smoothen inequalities on the surface.

A brush harrow called *yetta* is made of thick brushwood tied together and weighted. This implement is dragged over ragi fields soon after sowing in order to over the seeds.

Seed drills are common in the district. They are all of one general type. They consist of a hopper, seed tubes and furrow-opening tines. The hopper is made of a hard black wood in the shape of a double cup, joined base to base like a peg measure. Holes are drilled in the hopper from the funnel-like bottom of the upper half towards the periphery of the lower half so that the holes are situated in a circle close to the rim of the bottom of the hopper. The seed holes are three, six or twelve in number. In Chitradurga the drills used are of the four and three-tined type.

The *sadde* is another sowing implement which is called a one-tined drill. It has a hopper fixed to a long seed tube. The *sadde* is usually tied behind a plough or behind the cotton sowing *kuriges* for sowing seeds like *togari*, etc.

For interculturing methods *kuntes* and *yedekuntes* are employed. The *chippu kuntes* are hoes with two to four flat-bladed cultivating teeth. The *hatti kunte* or cotton *kunte* is about 18 inches in breadth.

The harvesting tool is only the sickle. Threshing is done by the old method of beating with sticks and of trampling out the grain under the feet of oxen. About 1918, the stone roller, about 2½ feet long and about 1¾ feet in diameter fitted with an axle and a framework, was introduced. The roller is drawn over the sheaves round and round and the grains threshed out.

For winnowing, cleaning, gathering grains and carrying straw, various appurtenances are used. The *mora* is the common winnowing tray used in the district. Metal sieves have also been popular.

Farm Carts.—In Chitradurga district, the *suppe gadi* (cart for carrying jowar stalks) is a common means of farm transport. These have a pair of massive solid wheels with an iron tyre three or four inches in thickness.

Modern implements.—About 25 per cent of the traditional ploughs have been replaced by the improved iron mould board ploughs. The improved ploughs now in use in the district are the Mysore Bar Point Plough, K.M. Plough, Kirloskar, Eureca, Gurjar and Talur Ploughs.

Seed Farms

Seed supply.—The scheme of increased food production envisages the setting up of Seed Multiplication Farms. It is the policy of the Agricultural Department to locate one Seed Farm in the National Extension Service and Community Development areas of each taluk. There are three Seed Nucleus Farms in the district, one at the Agriculture Research Station at Hiriyur, another near Gunderi in Holalkere taluk and the third near Jagalur. The importance of using good seed can hardly be exaggerated. The improved variety of seed is developed by bringing about botanical improvement by adopting various methods of plant breeding such as selection from the existing material, hybridisation and the like. As soon as the plant-breeder finds out a new variety, large-scale trials are conducted to test it at least for a period of three years at the Research Station itself where the new seed was developed. When the seed shows better performance than the existing varieties it is released for trial on fields in a variety of tracts to determine the areas for which the seed is best suited. The variety that successfully goes through these trials becomes the recommended variety and then steps are taken to multiply the seed on a large scale. While the stages in the multiplication of seeds vary from crop to crop the multiplication of seeds like jowar, paddy, wheat and gram is done in three stages, *viz.*, nucleus seed, foundation seed and registered seed. The nucleus seed is produced by the plant-breeder himself while the foundation seed is multiplied in Departmental Seed Farms. The registered seed is multiplied on the fields of seed-growers under the close supervision of the Extension Staff.

The Seed Farm located in the Agricultural Research Station at Hiriyur was started in 1957 to serve the taluks of Hiriyur, Chitradurga, Hosadurga and Challakere. The new varieties multiplied were E.S. 11 for ragi, M. 35-1 for jowar and S-701, S-661 and S-1092 for paddy. The extent of the farm was about 25 acres.

The Gunderi Seed Farm in Holalkere taluk is very near Gunderi and is situated four miles from Holalkere. This farm serves the taluks of Holalkere, Davangere and Harihar and has an area of 20-18 acres. It was started in the year 1958. The improved seeds evolved in the farm in respect of ragi were R.O. 870 and R-009.

The Chickbantanhalli Seed Farm in Jagalur taluk is located 14 miles from Jagalur and has an area of 20 acres. This farm serves the taluks of Jagalur and Molakalmuru. New seed varieties in respect of jowar, navane and ragi are evolved in the farm. This farm was started on 1st January 1958.

The following statement indicates the number of seed-growers and the extent of acreage on which seed-multiplication was done by them during the year 1964-65 :

Crop	*Registered seed growers*	*Bulk area (acres)*
Ragi	102	82
Paddy	95	108
Groundnut	82	84

During 1964-65, 4,606 kilograms of jowar seeds, 4,256 kilograms of ragi seeds and 6,495 kilograms of paddy seeds were produced.

It is proposed to start yet another Seed Farm in the Tungabhadra Project area in Harihar.

Manures and Fertilisers

The usual varieties of manure like the farmyard manure, compost and green manure are in use throughout the district from time immemorial. In recent years, modern fertilisers are in great demand. These modern fertilisers are supplied by the department mainly through co-operative societies.

The following table indicates the target and achievement in respect of production or supply of manure in the district, during 1964-65 :—

Manure	*Target*	*Achievement*
Urban compost	7,500 tons	5,002 tons
Rural compost	3,00,000 tons	1,68,017 tons
Night soil	1,000 tons	210 tons
Bonemeal	160 tons	82 tons
Green manure	10,000 qntls.	7,033 qntls.

Preparation of compost manure from both rural and urban waste forms a particular feature of agricultural activity in the district.

In addition to the supply of modern fertilisers, production of green manure is also encouraged. Seeds and cuttings of several known varieties like sannhemp, sesbania, glyricidia and diancha were supplied.

Pests and Diseases

The major insect pests and diseases affecting several crops in the district are as follows :—

Groundnut.—Aphis and Thrips.

Cotton.—Heliothis, Boll worm, Aphis, Thrips, Semi-Loopers and Scale insects.

Jowar.—Stem-borer, Ear-head Caterpillar and Deccan Grass-hoppers.

Paddy.—Stem-borer, Case worm and Grass-hoppers.

Ragi.—Cut worms and Litta.

The introduction of plant protection measures for combating pests and diseases has awakened the raiyats who are now aware of the modern methods of spraying, dusting and the like. Large quantities of chemicals are being distributed year after year and the district has made considerable progress in this respect. Intensive control measures have been initiated to control major diseases like the jowar smut by the fungicide treatment. Chemicals worth Rs. 40,000 were supplied to cultivators on 50 per cent subsidy during 1964-65.

Babbur Agricultural Farm

The Babbur Agricultural Farm not far off from Hiriyur is the oldest farm in the erstwhile Mysore State. After the construction of a dam across Vedavati (Vanivilas Sagar), Dr. L. C. Coleman, the then Director of Agriculture, thought of having a research farm for sugarcane experimentation. The Babbur Farm, consisting of 250 acres on the banks of Vanivilas Sagar canal, has all facilities needed for advanced agricultural research. The results so obtained were later made use of by the first sugar factory in Mysore State, established at Mandya. A very extensive acreage was brought under sugarcane in the Visvesvaraya Canal area in Mandya, making use of the results of experiments conducted in the Babbur Farm. The farm came into existence in 1912 purely for sugarcane research. Later on, experiments on cotton were also conducted. The Babbur Farm has done pioneering research work in respect of sugarcane, cotton and garden crops.

Demonstrations

In order to educate the tillers of the soil, the State Agricultural Department drew up schemes to inculcate in the minds of the raiyats the supreme need to follow modern agricultural practices. Shows are arranged in almost all the villages depicting the developments in the production of manures and plant protection.

During 1964-65, various demonstrations were conducted and the following statement indicates the particulars of the same.

Particulars		*No. of demonstrations.*
Control of pests and diseases	..	6,000
Green manure production	..	200
Compost manufacture	..	450
Improved cultivation methods	..	500

In addition to these demonstrations, 450 exhibitions and shows were also conducted and ten field days observed.

The adoption of improved dry farming practices has helped agricultural production in the district. Therefore, a number of schemes have been prepared relating to dry farming and other improved agricultural practices. The intensive cultivation programme for jowar, bajra and pulses is one of them. The Department of Agriculture has finalised plans to take up this scheme in the first phase in two districts, *viz.*, Dharwar and Chitradurga, in a few selected taluks. In Chitradurga district, four taluks, *viz.*, Chitradurga, Jagalur, Davangere and Harihar have been selected for intensive production of jowar, bajra and pulses. The acreage to be brought under this scheme in respect of jowar (Kharif as well as Rabi) is given in the following table.

Taluk		*Acreage*		
		Kharif	*Rabi*	*Total*
Chitradurga	..	50,000	4,000	54,000
Jagalur	..	31,000	..	31,000
Davangere	..	46,100	6,400	52,500
Harihar	..	34,200	400	34,600
Total	..	1,61,300	10,800	1,72,100

The programme of work envisaged is the popularisation of dry farming practices in respect of field-bunding, levelling, contour

cultivation, strip-cropping and mixed cropping, application of farm-yard manures, timely sowing and wider spacing by dibbling. It is also proposed to supply improved varieties of seeds of jowar, bajra and pulses. The application of nitrogenous fertilisers to the jowar crop is particularly stressed. Timely suggestions and technical help are provided, whenever desired.

Hybrid seeds

It has been realised that unless new methods derived from sustained research are made use of, agricultural production will be at a stand-still. In order to step up production of jowar, hybrid seeds are recommended for adoption. Two taluks in the district, *viz.*, Hiriyur and Harihar have been selected for this purpose and nine registered seed-growers are chosen for hybrid jowar production during summer months. Alur, Adivala, Babbur, Krishnambudi and Yelanadu villages of Hiriyur taluk have been specially chosen to specialise in hybrid seed production. In all forty acres have been provided for this purpose in this taluk. Likewise, Govinahal, Sirigere and Hanagavadi in Harihar taluk have been selected for the same purpose. A total of 35 acres will grow hybrid seeds in this taluk. The district agricultural specialists supply to these seed-growers female and male seeds received from National Seed Corporation, Delhi. The hybrid seeds so produced are distributed in about 10,000 acres during the kharif season. The programme of intensive cultivation cannot bear fruit unless the jowar crop is protected against seed-borne diseases like the smut. The seeds before the actual sowing have to be treated with sulphur at the rate of 25 grams for 7 kilograms of seed to check the infection. Pesticides and fungicides are supplied to the farmers at 50 per cent subsidy. As a measure of intensification, the authorities propose to recommend the application of 150 kilograms of Ammonium Sulphate, 92 kilograms of Super-phosphate for jowar. For irrigated jowar, 250 kilograms of Ammonium Sulphate and 187 kilograms of Super-phosphate have been suggested. Short-term credit is also made available to the cultivators for the purchase of manures, fertilisers, seeds and the like, through the co-operative institutions at the rate of Rs. 100 per acre, recoverable after the harvest.

Improved agricultural practices

The Japanese method of paddy cultivation is becoming increasingly popular in the district. In order to increase the per acre production of paddy, the raiyats in the district are urged to give sufficient attention to raise good nurseries, to adopt good spacing while planting, to apply fertilisers and to follow other cultural practices. Plant protection measures occupy an important place in this scheme. The Japanese method is popular in Hiriyur and Challakere taluks, where water resources under the Vanivilas Sagar are better than in other taluks. It is also proposed to initiate the Japanese method in the Bhadra channel areas, covering an area of 50,000 acres. The following table

indicates the extent of acreage covered under the Japanese method in the district from 1959-60 to 1963-64 :—

Year			Target	Achievement
			Acres	
1959-1960	..	..	16,000	8,223
1960-1961	..	..	12,000	6,314
1961-1962	..	..	12,000	3,415
1962-1963	..	..	7,500	4,250
1963-1964	..	..	4,500	1,594

Sufficient incentives are offered to those who come forward to adopt improved methods of cultivation. Improved implements, seeds and pesticides are given on subsidy. Plant protection equipments are widely distributed in the district. The following table gives particulars of distribution of these equipments in the district during the period from 1961-62 to 1963-64 :—

Type of equipment		1961-62	1962-63	1963-64
1. Hand rotary dusters	..	50	..	20
2. Half gallon sprayers	..	12	..	..
3. Stirrup pumps	..	5	..	10
4. Rocking sprayers	.	76	40	110
5. Barrel sprayers	.	58	28	52
6. Paddle pump	..	..	25	25
7. Superlot sprayer	.	..	40	40

Development Schemes

Kharif and Rabi campaigns are undertaken mainly for purposes of propaganda, in order to inculcate in the minds of the cultivators the use of improved implements, better cultivation methods and intercultural practices. This scheme is undertaken mostly in respect of jowar, ragi and paddy crops. Intensive schemes of agricultural development for crops like jowar, bajra, wheat and ragi are launched on individual farms.

A sugarcane development scheme has been taken up in the district to expand the area of cultivation and to increase the present low tonnage of yield. Technical advice is promptly given in areas where sugarcane is grown. The development scheme envisages the multiplication of seed sets, better application of fertilisers and the like.

Other schemes like the cotton development scheme, tobacco development scheme, oilseed development scheme are also being implemented In addition, an areca nursery scheme was also introduced, and a good number of seedlings were raised and distributed to cultivators on subsidy basis. During 1964-65, about four lakhs of seedlings were distributed.

Right from the beginning of the Second Plan, a coconut nursery scheme was in operation under the guidance of the District Agricultural Office. Upto the end of 1964-65, a total of 1,80,000 seedlings were distributed on subsidy basis. The scheme has since been handed over to the State Horticultural Department.

Nearly 47,675 acres were brought under various intensive cultivation schemes during 1965-66.

ANIMAL HUSBANDRY

Agricultural practices in the district, as elsewhere in the country, are closely related to its cattle wealth. The welfare of cattle has always been considered very important both for breeding and maintenance. Much of the agricultural work like ploughing, threshing, drawing water from the wells and carrying the produce from place to place is done by cattle. Cattle development on a planned and systematic basis is very essential not only from the point of view of the agriculturists, but also in the interest of the nutritional needs of the people. The breed of the cattle of Chitradurga district has acquired a special name as the Chitradurga breed, which belongs to the Amrit Mahal family group. This breed is very popular in all the taluks of the district and also in the adjoining areas. The cattle belonging to this group seldom attain much height, but in proportion to their size are remarkably deep and inside in the chest, long and broad in the back, round in the barrel, well ribbed up and strong in the shoulder and limbs. They are active and fiery and walk faster. The cows are generally white in colour. They give about one seer of milk per day. The cattle of this breed subsist mostly on pastures and on the stalks of the castor, jowar and other plants. According to the livestock census held in 1956, there were 4,41,415 heads of cattle in the district. The number rose to 5,17,984 in 1961.

The cattle in general mainly depend upon ragi and jowar stalks for their fodder. The hay of ragi and jowar is available in all taluks and hence there is no separate acreage for fodder production in the district. Paddy hay is also available to some extent. All these as also *gomals, hullubanni, kharabs, kavals* and forests provide fodder for the cattle of the district.

Bovine population

The total bovine population in the district according to the livestock census held in 1961 was 7,30,539 consisting of bulls and bullocks, cows, he-buffaloes and she-buffaloes. The percentage increase of bovine population from 1956 to 1961 was 20. Chitradurga has the highest bovine population in the State, Bellary being second with 5,03,727 and Chikmagalur with 4,80,001. The following table indicates the taluk-wise density of the bovine population, as noted in the 1961 Census :—

Taluk			*Density per 1,000 acres of cultivated land.*
Chitradurga	..	..	233.9
Holalkere	..	..	229.5
Davangere	..	..	251.4
Molakalmuru	..	..	153.7
Hosadurga	..	..	176.6
Jagalur	..	..	166.5
Harihar	..	..	207.2
Hiriyur	..	..	124.7
Challakere	..	..	128.3

The average for the district came to 185.4. It is seen that taluks with poor pastures have the lowest density. Sterile cows are highest in taluks with poor fodder resources.

Cattle Farms

There are no cattle breeding farms or cattle breeding agencies or societies in the district. Two Amrit Mahal Economic Cattle Farms, one at Ullarthi in Challakere taluk and the other at Kainadu in Hosadurga taluk, are being maintained and are under the control of the Superintendent of the Cattle Breeding Station at Ajjampur in Chikmagalur district.

Measures for the improvement of cattle have been undertaken throughout the district. Improved breeding bulls are being supplied to chosen custodians for upgrading the local cattle. Bulls from the Ajjampur Cattle Breeding Station are supplied on a subsidy basis. The number of approved stud bulls in the district during 1964-65 was 173. Out of these, 43 were owned by the Government, and the rest by the local bodies and other private custodians.

Artificial Insemination Centres

Another method of improving the cattle breed is artificial insemination. A large number of cattle have been covered by this method. As on 1st January 1966, eight artificial insemination centres were functioning in the district at the following places.

Main Centres.—Chitradurga and Davangere.

Sub-Centres.—Maykonda, Harihar Hosadurga, Jagalur, Hadadi and Anagodu.

All male cattle other than the breeding stock are regularly castrated This operation is, however, not done until the animals are about five years old. It is held by the experts that early castration interferes with the full bodily development of the animal. During 1964-65, 4,906 villages in the district were visited by trained staff and 5,290 bovines were castrated.

The veterinary wing of the Animal Husbandry Department is devoted mainly to the treatment and prevention of animal diseases. The district is served by one Veterinary Hospital in Chitradurga, nine taluk dispensaries and 22 rural dispensaries. The number of veterinary institutions and their location as in 1965 are given below :— **Veterinary Institutions**

Veterinary Hospital—

1. Chitradurga.

Taluk Dispensaries—

1. Davangere.
2. Harihar.
3. Jagalur.
4. Molakalmuru.
5. Challakere.
6. Hiriyur.
7. Hosadurga.
8. Holalkere.
9. Chitradurga.

Rural Dispensaries—

1. Bharamasagar (Chitradurga taluk).
2. Turuvanur (Chitradurga taluk).
3. Sirigere (Chitradurga taluk).
4. Bheemasamudra (Chitradurga taluk).
5. Mayakonda (Davangere taluk).
6. Anagodu (Davangere taluk).
7. Hadadi (Davangere taluk).
8. Malebennur (Harihar taluk).
9. Bilichodu (Jagalur taluk).
10. Sokke (Jagalur taluk).
11. Basavanakote (Jagalur taluk).
12. Rampura (Molakalmuru taluk).
13. Bedraddihalli (Challakere taluk).
14. Belagere-Narayanapura (Challakere taluk).
15. Kaparahalli (Challakere taluk).
16. Yeraballi (Hiriyur taluk).
17. Hariyabbe (Hiriyur taluk).
18. Aimangala (Hiriyur taluk).
19. Vanivilaspura (Hiriyur taluk).
20. Srirampur (Hosadurga taluk).
21. Belagur (Hosadurga taluk).
22. Malladihalli (Holalkere taluk).

In order to stamp out the much-dreaded Rinderpest disease, mass vaccination of cattle has been undertaken as part of a Central **Control of Epidemics**

Government scheme. Most of the cattle in the district have been subjected to vaccination.

The diseases generally prevalent in the district are Haemorrhagic Septicaemia, Black Quarter, Anthrax, Nasal Granuloma, Sheep-Pox, foot and mouth disease, respiratory, urinary and digestive disorders. All these ailments are being controlled by timely inoculations and proper treatment by qualified veterinarians. During 1964-65, 4,760 preventive inoculations were done against Anthrax. The following table indicates the number of inoculations done against other diseases (1964-65).

Disease	*No of inoculations.*
Haemorrhagic Septicaemia ..	87,058
Black quarter ..	32,373
Sheep-pox ..	29,940
Fowl-pox ..	841
Ranikhet ..	34,979

During 1964-65, the total number of outpatient livestock treated in the veterinary hospital and dispensaries was 1,48,672.

Cattle fairs

Cattle fairs are a special feature in the district and are regularly held in Devapur, Bagur and Kellodu in Hosadurga taluk, Challakere, Nagagondanahalli and Nayakanahatti in Challakere taluk, Kalludevarapura and Gurusiddapura in Jagaluf taluk, Gunderi in Holalkere taluk, Harthikote in Hiriyur taluk and Harihar town and Nandigudi in Harihar taluk. During the annual Gosamvardhana week rallies are organised in all the taluks.

Other Livestock

In 1911, there were 3,01,082 sheep and 1,79,197 goats. As per the livestock census of 1961, the figures were 4,40,146 and 1,79,685. There is a Sheep Breeders' Association in Chitradurga town and a Sheep and Wool Development Centre in Hosadurga.

According to 1961 livestock census, there were 1,720 horses and ponies and 3,507 donkeys in the district.

There were in all 2,92,807 poultry in the district, according to 1961 census. There is only one Poultry Extension Centre in Davangere, where technical advice is given to those who come forward to start farms.

Recently a parasitic disease control centre has been opened at Malali in Chitradurga taluk.

FISHERIES

The fishery resources of the district consist of 141 major tanks, 212 minor tanks and two reservoirs, *viz.*, the Vanivilas Sagar and the Gayathri Reservoir, numerous wells and ponds. There are two main rivers, the Tungabhadra, flowing along the boundary between the Dharwar and Chitradurga districts, and the Vedavati flowing through the district into Bellary district where it is known as the Hagari river. The Chikkahagari (or Chinnahagari), a tributary of the Hagari, also flows through the district. It has been estimated that about 30,500 acres of water-spread area is available for fisheries development in the district.

The important fishes found in the waters of the district are the following :—

Scientific name	*Common name*
Carps	
Barbus carnaticus	Gende
Barbus kolus	Kolasa
Barbus pulchellus	Harigi
Barbus neilli	Hellu
Barbus sarana	Hatteparki
Labeo fimbriatus	Kemmeenu
Labeo calbasu	Kagimeenu
Labeo boggut	Machalu
Labeo nukta	..
Cirrhina reba	Tharimeenu
Cirrhina fulungee	Arja
Chela spp	Bilchi
Cat Fishes	
Callichrous bimaculatus	Godhle
Wallago attu	Balemeenu
Mystus seenghala	Helathi
Mystus aor	Thurgi
Mystus vittatus	Meesegirlu
Bagarius yarelli	Kurdimeenu
Murrels	
Ophiocephalus marulius	Hoomeenu
Ophiocephalus striatus	Kutchu
Ophiocephalus punctatus	Korava
Miscellaneous	
Mastacembelus armatus	Havumeenu
Anguilla bengalensis	Malagameenu
Notopterus notopterus	Chavale
Glossogobius giuris	Bargisidda
Rasbora spp	Saslu
Palaemon serratus (Prawns)	Seegadi

Fishing Methods

Fishing in the rivers, reservoirs and tanks is done by means of cast net, gill net, drag net, prawn net, long line, plunge baskets, basket traps and rod and line.

Cast net is the common type of net used by fishermen all over the country. It is a net which is like a cone when folded and is circular when spread out. The diameter of the circle varies from 15 feet to 20 feet and the size of the mesh frim ¼ inch to 1 inch. The large-meshed nets are used to catch bigger fishes. The net which is made of cotton yarn has a hauling-in cord passing through an aperture in the centre of the circle. From the upper end of the cord about fifteen subsidiary cords radiate towards the margin of the net where they are all tied to a thick marginal cord weighted with iron or lead sinkers. The fisheman moves noiselessly to the spot where he desires to cast the net. The net when cast spreads out into a circle. The sinkers drag the net to the bottom trapping the fish underneath. The fisherman then slowly drags up the hauling-in cord and the margin of the net comes closer and closer towards the centre when he finally takes the net out of the water along with the fish. This net is used in rivers as well as in tanks and ponds.

In some portions of the Tungabhadra river, the cast net is sometimes operated like a bag net when the fish are driven into it with the use of a scare line by a number of fishermen and the net is then lifted with the fish.

Gill Nets

Gill nets are commonly used for fishing in reservoirs and pools in the rivers. In the gill net, the fish gets caught in the mesh of the net. When trying to swim through, the fish is able to get its head through the mesh but not its body and when it attempts to free itself, the twine slips under the gill cover and the fish becomes 'gilled'. The nets are rectangular in shape and they are made of hemp or cotton twine The length varies from 50 feet to 500 feet and breadth from 3 feet to 5 feet with floats and sinkers. The size of the mesh varies from 1 inch to 3 inches. The nets when cast in the water stand more or less vertically like a wall and are laid either in the night or in the early hours of the morning for being collected after sunrise. Most of the bigger fishes such as carps and cat fishes are caught in these nets.

Killekyathas, who are an important fishing community in the district, operate these nets in deep water as in the Vanivilas Sagar reservoir The whole net is arranged layer by layer on a short bamboo stick and a single Killekyatha carries a number of nets. The casting of the net is done in an ingenious manner. Two pairs of dry gourds are tied together by a short length of thick rope on which the fisherman sits as on horseback and maintaining balance with his feet, moves forward into deeper portions of the reservoir laying out the net.

The drag net is used both in rivers and tanks. It is a rectangular net and made of strong cotton yarn or hemp. The size of the mesh varies from ¼ inch to 1 inch, length of the net being from 80 feet to 100 feet and breadth from 8 feet to 10 feet.

Prawn Nets

In shape, a prawn net is more or less like a cone. The wider end is open and kept in position by a set of three sticks while the narrow end is closed and forms a bag in which the fish are collected. The net is pushed in shallow water with the wide mouth directed forwards. The water is filtered through the net and the prawns and small fish are driven into the bag. The fish are removed at intervals, depending upon the catch.

The long line consists of a coir or cotton cord varying from 200′ to 300′ in length to which short lengths (snoods) of thick cotton twine are attached at distances of 2′ to 3′. Fishing hooks are tied to the free ends of the snoods and are baited with small frogs, fish or earthworm.

The plunge basket is a conical basket of bamboo strips or other material, wide open at the bottom and with a smaller opening at the top. The basket is operated in shallow water and is placed firmly over the ground where fish may be lurking. The fish trapped inside are caught by hand stretched through the small opening at the top.

Basket traps are made of bamboos in various designs. They are fixed across small channels and streams. By this method, mostly small fishes are caught.

Fishing Communities

The important fishing communities in the district are the Besthas, Upparas, Bedas and Killekyathas. The persons belonging to Killekyatha community are nomadic by habit and their main occupation is fishing. Besides, the agriculturists and other rural people also take up fishing now and then, when the water level in the tanks goes down in the summer.

Development activities

For the development of fisheries in the district, a Fisheries Sub-Divisional Office was opened at Chitradurga during 1958 under the charge of an Assistant Superintendent of Fisheries. The Headquarters of the Assistant Superintendent was later shifted to Vanivilaspura as the activities were chiefly centred around the Vanivilas Sagar. An Assistant Inspector of Fisheries is now stationed at Chitradurga. The programme of work in the district consists of :

(1) Survey of the available resources to find out their suitability for fisheries development.

(2) Breeding of suitable varieties of fish in fish farms, rearing and distribution of fish seed.

(3) Collection of fish seed from natural sources and rearing and stocking them.

(4) Promotion of fish culture through supply of seed and extension work.

(5) Demonstration of the use of improved fishing gear in deep waters.

(6) Disposal of fishery rights of major tanks through public auction and licensing and collection of revenue.

(7) Improving the socio-economic conditions of fishermen through co-operatives.

(8) Organising the marketing of fish.

A fish farm covering 5.05 acres has been set up at Vanivilaspura for breeding of fish and rearing of seed for distribution. Suitable varieties of Indian carps like Catla, Rohu and Mrigal as well as the important carp, Cyprinus carpio, are bred at this fish farm and the fish seed is made available for stocking in waters elsewhere. In order that the fish seed requirements of the district may be met by this farm it is being expanded. For future augmentation of the supply of fish seed, spawning grounds and seed collection centres of indigenous fishes have been located in the river Vedavati and annually, fish seed is being collected at these centres and reared and stocked in major tanks.

The Vanivilas Sagar, also known as the Marikanive, is one of the oldest reservoirs in the Mysore State. It has a total waterspread area of 21,460 acres. Continued stocking over a period of years has resulted in the establishment of Catla — one of the major carps—in this reservoir and this fish now finds an important place in the catches of the fishermen. Improved methods of fishing by means of nylon gill nets have been demonstrated and introduced in the reservoir. Fishing is regulated by licences. Fish caught in the reservoir is regularly marketed in Bangalore. During 1962-63, 142 metric tons of fish were caught and a part of the catch was sent also to Calcutta. In order to sustain the fishery, the reservoir is being systematically stocked every year with fingerlings of major carps and Cyprinus carpio which are reared in the farm below the dam.

For developing the fisheries in the minor tanks and irrigation wells located in Block areas, an intensive fisheries development programme was taken up in Hosadurga Block in the year

1964-65. Under this scheme, provision is made to give assistance to Panchayats, fish farmers and fishermen for improvement of fish ponds, purchase of fish fingerlings and fishery requisites. A special staff has been provided for this work.

A Fishermen's Co-operative Society was organised at Vanivilas Sagar during 1963 and is chiefly engaged in the exploitation of the Vanivilas Sagar fishery. The society markets the catches of the members and supplies them with fishery requisites. Governmental assistance has been granted to the society by way of contribution to share capital and grant of loans.

Sixteen families of Killekyatha fishermen who are nomadic in nature have been rehabilitated at Iyyanahalli near Vanivilas Sagar.

Famines and Floods

As the district has a poor rainfall, the area is now and then subject to acute distress and scarcity conditions. No famine as such has occurred in the district since 1875-77. Parts of Hosadurga, Challakere and Molakalmuru taluks are subject to periodic droughts and scarcity, the annual rainfall in some bad years being as low as 6 inches. During 1965-66, the district suffered from an acute drought condition, when most of the tanks became dry and sub-soil water scarce. There was acute scarcity of fodder. A special team from the Central Planning Commission visited several taluks and after due assessment, recommended certain measures to alleviate the distress. In order to relieve distress, silt clearance, minor irrigation works and the like have been undertaken.

Floods of a serious nature have not occurred in the district though due to sudden cloud bursts, off and on, some of the streams which are generally dry also become flooded. The Sulekerehalla in Harihar taluk and the Janagahalla in Chitradurga taluk are the two streams which usually get flooded during rainy season.

CHAPTER V

INDUSTRIES

IN the present tempo of planning and development, the important role of industries in a district's economy need not be emphasised. The development of industries is an accepted factor in the evolution of a region's economy. Chitradurga district is favourably situated in regard to the production of most of the raw materials needed for the development of its industries. The vast net-work of roads and the Bangalore-Poona railway line passing through the district touching Davangere and Harihar, which are the two important places of industrial development, have contributed largely towards the industrial expansion in the district. Agricultural raw materials of considerable value are raised every year. Cotton, which constitutes the main item for the textile industries, and oil seeds, especially groundnut, which are responsible for a large number of oil mills, are grown in considerable quantities. Among the other important industries may be mentioned the manufacture of machine tools at the Kirloskar Works at Harihar, and cotton ginning and pressing; among small-scale industries, handloom weaving and beedi manufacture ar important. In the following pages of this chapter these and such other industries are briefly dealt with.

Old-time Industries

Of the old indigenous industries, the most important was handloom weaving. The other old-time industries of the district were those connected with pottery and goldsmithy. Practised on a fairly large scale, these industries of Chitradurga showed a natural tendency to become centralised in a few important towns where special facilities for their development were available. Handloom weaving which still retains its importance is the oldest industry of the district. The extension of cheap and rapid means of communications also witnessed the emergence of the powerloom as a formidable rival to the handloom. It is noteworthy that in spite of this competition, it has survived to be one of the most important industries in the district. The silk fabrics of Molakalmuru are being produced for several decades and are still popular. The woollen blankets called 'kamblies' made in this district are noted for their quality and durability and this industry is also

one of the old industries of the district. Another important old-time industry of the district is the oil-pressing industry. This industry was promoted by a class of people called 'Ganigas'. The work of crushing the oil seeds was done mostly in the primitive wooden or stone oil mills called *ghanas*. Several kinds of seeds *viz*., *hutchellu* (Niger), *honge* (Pongamia glabra), *hippe* (Bassia latifolia), *kadale kayi* (groundnut) and *haralu* (castor) were crushed in these mills.

Yet another popular old-time industry of this district was the manufacture of bangles or glass rings, worn on the wrists like bracelets by all classes of women. Till very recently, glass bangles were being prepared in several places of the district, *viz*., Molakalmuru, Mathodu and Anivala. The decline of this once flourishing industry is chiefly due to the scarcity of cheap fuel and alkaline earth and the importation of bangles of much higher quality at low prices from outside the State. The industry is now practically extinct.

Among the other industries of old were leather tanning and the making of buttons and earth salt. Most of these are now extinct due to a variety of reasons, the chief of which were paucity of funds, insufficient supply of raw materials, want of skilled workers, lack of efficient management and the absence of proper marketing facilities.

Power supply

The supply of electricity in the district was by five high tension sub-stations located at Davangere, Chitradurga, Harihar, Thalak and Hiriyur. Another sub-station, having a capacity of 3 M.V.A. located at Hanagal was commissioned on 30th January, 1966. This station supplies power to both Chitradurga and Bellary districts. The Davangere sub-station is the biggest in the district with a capacity of 15 M.V.A. Hydel power produced at the Mahatma Gandhi Hydro-Electric Station at Jog and in the Bhadra Power Station at Lakkavalli is supplied to this station. This station has also been geared to receive electric energy from the Tungabhadra Power House and to distribute it to three other stations in the district, *viz*., Chitradurga, Thalak and Hiriyur. The Harihar sub--station is fed from the Jog Power House

For purposes of power distribution in the district, a sub-division attached to the Bhadravathi Electrical Division, with an Assistant Engineer stationed at Davangere, was set up and this administrative arrangement continued for several years. Having regard to the rapid industrialisation, in and around Davangere and Harihar, and the growing demand for irrigation pumpsets in Hiriyur and Challakere regions, the formation of a full-fledged electrical division in the district was decided upon. Accordingly, the Chitradurga Electrical Division with its head-quarters at Chitradurga under an Executive Engineer was started from 1st

January, 1958. Subsequent to this, a sub-division headed by an Assistant Engineer was formed at Challakere from 28th September 1964, for the three taluks of Challakere, Molakalmuru and Hiriyur. The Chitradurga division is attached to the Shimoga Electrical Circle.

The division was maintaining 27,191 domestic and commercial lighting installations, 1,170 heating circuits, 788 power installations, 4,968 irrigation pumpsets and 7,765 street lights as on 30th November 1965. Rural electrification has made much headway and 519 villages had been electrified.

The following table indicates the taluk wise break-up of irrigation pumpsets and electrified villages in the district up to the end of November 1965.

Sl No	*Taluk*	*No. of Villages electrified*	*No. of Irrigation Pumpsets*
1	Chitradurga	115	1,047
2.	Davangere	44	230
3	Harihar	24	194
4	Holalkere	48	284
5	Hosadurga	25	73
6.	Hiriyur	79	645
7.	Challakere	106	1,455
8	Molakalmuru	33	705
9.	Jagalur	44	335
	Total	519	4,968

Mining

Mining is a developing industry in the district. There are manganese mines in Hosadurga, Chitradurga and Jagalur taluks which have afforded livelihood to a large number of people. In 1958, there were six manganese mines in the district out of which the N. G. Kathare mines were the largest. Sri Kathare began mining operations in 1951 and his mines were located at Madadakere, Kenkere, Siranakatte, Mathodu and Siddagondanahalli in Hosadurga taluk. About 200 persons, on a daily average, were working in these mines. During 1955, he had obtained 1,584 tons of manganese. This increased to 2,480 tons in 1956, and to 4,193 tons in 1957. However, there was a fall in production during 1958 and only 705 tons of manganese were produced. The other five manganese mines were located in Chitradurga, Hosadurga and Holalkere taluks.

In 1966, there were 60 mining leases for manganese ore in the district. The largest extent of area for mining, covering about 1,200 acres, was held by Sri M. Ramadas in Sadarahalli village, while the Lakshminarayana Mining Company was producing the largest quantity of manganese ore in Gudal and Halekal villages, the average annual production being about 10,000 tons.

The total tonnage of manganese ore obtained during the years from 1961 to 1965 was as follows:—

Year		*Production in tonnes*
1961	..	15,436
1962	..	16,810
1963	..	17,350
1964	..	25,495
1965	..	39,245

Iron ore

Iron ore is also found in some places in the district. The production of this ore during the year 1965 was 2,09,398 tonnes, valued at Rs. 9,07,630. During the previous year, the production was 1,96,941 tonnes.

Ancient mines of sulphur are found at Ingladhal near Chitradurga town, and mining operations for obtaining sulphur seem to have been carried on during the old days in the heart of four or five small hills which are by the side of Ingladhal village. There is a mine, about 200 yards deep, in which it is said good quantities of gold and silver were also incidentally mined during old days. At Kolahal and Kellehadlu of Chitradurga taluk also, sulphur mines exist.

Pyrite deposits

Pyrite mineralisation is confined to narrow brecciated zones in chert amidst the traps in the district. The bands dip at steep angles. Several such bands are recognisable in a zone, nearly 30 miles in length. One such band in the Belligudda hill, where old workings for copper are known to exist, has been selected for detailed drilling exploration. The deposits have been prospected by drilling a number of drill holes over a strike length of about 2,000 feet. The deepest hole drilled reached a depth of 414 feet. All the holes have intersected well-defined sulphide ores showing concentrations of pyrites. The width of mineralised zone is 45 feet but bands of solid pyrites are confined to the central portions of the lode.

Under the Second Five-Year Plan, the main scheme taken up in this district was exploration of sulphide ores. The scheme consisted firstly of diamond drilling operations, secondly of carrying out of underground exploratory work at Ingladhal, thirdly of conducting pilot plant tests and fourthly, of working out ways and means of extracting sulphur from the ores.

The scheme of exploration of sulphide ore was continued during the Third Plan. Other schemes envisaged under this plan related to development of lime and limestone industries, investigation of kyanite and sillimanite deposits and conducting of a survey in the gold-bearing areas. The question of utilising deposits of pyrites

in the manufacture of sulphuric acid and fertilisers is presently engaging the attention of the State Government.

Machine Tools

Machine tools play their part directly or indirectly in the production of all the goods and in services that contribute to the maintenance of modern standards of living. They are directly employed to produce such essentials as the means of transport and communication, and since they are the tools which make the machines, all articles of daily use indirectly depend on them. Attention to this industry is a matter of high priority in any country seeking self-sustained growth. One such factory manufacturing machine tools in the district of Chitradurga is the Mysore Kirloskar Ltd., at Yantrapur, Harihar, and the important role of this private sector factory in promoting industrial and economic development is well known.

The Kirloskar organisation had its beginning in the year 1888. A small shop under the name Kirloskar Bros. was started for repairing and selling bicycles in Belgaum. This shop was running smoothly, but the founder had a desire to manufacture something useful for Indian farmers and therefore took up the manufacture of chaff-cutters in 1900 and by 1906, he started manufacture of iron tools. In the early years, the sales were not encouraging, but finally the farmers were convinced of the efficacy of the iron plough. The demand increased and the original bicycle shop developed into a small workshop in 1910.

At this juncture, Kirloskar Bros. had to face a critical time; their land was acquired and they were left with no place for their factory. At this moment, an offer of land and money was made by Raja Saheb of Aundh and this enabled the Kirloskar Bros. to shift their small workshop to Kirloskar-wadi. The First World War helped the concern to grow and by 1935, the concern established itself on a sound footing.

The company not only continued expanding its production but also concentrated on experiments on machine tools. It started the manufacture of machine tools on a small scale at Kirloskar-wadi between 1935 and 1939. The outbreak of the Second World War completely cut off the imports of machine tools and the demand for indigenous machine tools developed very rapidly. Kirloskar Bros., Ltd., recognised the urgency and visualising the bright future for the machine tool industry decided to establish a separate machine tool factory. While they were in search of a suitable site, the Mysore Government extended an invitation to them to establish a factory in the State. Harihar was selected and in the year 1941 the Mysore Kirloskar Ltd., came into being.

Mysore Kirloskar Ltd.

The Mysore Kirloskar Ltd., have worked their way to success in spite of initial difficulties. In the year 1942, they had one machine shop employing 40 workers. Slowly but steadily, the factory expanded and along with it, the production of machines and strength of workers also increased. In 1941-42, the number of machines manufactured was below 100 and the production of castings was only 35 tons per month. In the year 1951, more than 650 machines were manufactured and production of castings exceeded over 470 tons per month. During the period of the Second World War, the Government of India placed substantial orders for defence equipments. The Mysore Kirloskar Ltd. made the best use of the opportunity and manufactured defence machine tools on a large scale. Along with the manufacture of different varieties of machine tools, the Mysore Kirloskar Ltd. devoted their special attention to the improvement and expansion of their foundry production. They began to cater for the needs of the engineering workshops by supplying sturdy and good castings to them. By 1951, the foundry employed more than 500 persons and the daily out-put exceeded 20 tons. Between the years 1941 and 1951 the Mysore Kirloskar concentrated their energy and resources on the manufacture of better and various types of precision machine tools. The range of production was considerably enlarged and by 1951, the production included lathes, drilling machines, power presses and Hacksaw machines. In 1953, the factory manufactured 853 machines. With the increase in demand for machine tools, the production of the factory went on increasing year by year and during 1956-57, the factory sold Rs. 56,70.000 worth of articles produced by them. It increased to Rs. 95,62,000 during 1957-58, to Rs. 1,18,32,000 during 1958-59 and to Rs. 3,82,67,206 during 1964-65.

The company was registered in 1941 with an authorised capital of Rs. 10,00,000, out of which Rs. 5,00,000 were called up. The working capital at the end of the first year was Rs. 6,40 000. In 1965, the authorised share capital was Rs. 3,50,00,000.

The sources of finance are—(1) share-capital of the company subscribed by the public (Rs. 1,50,00,000), (ii) reserves created by the company by savings out of its own profits (Rs. 30,56,628), (iii) long-term borrowing for investment in fixed assets (Rs. 97,98,720) from the industrial finance corporation (secured) and Rs. 11,93,050 from fixed deposits (unsecured).

Employment and Wages

At the outset, there were only 40 workers. With the gradual expansion of the factory, the number of workers went on increasing year by year and in 1951 there were about 1,000 workers in the factory. In 1955, there were 1,170 workers; this number increased to 1,288 in 1956 and to 1,328 in 1957. It rose to 1,308 in 1958 and to 2,408 as on 30th June 1965, the maximum number in the history of the factory. The average total wage bill per month

paid to the different workers during 1956-57 was Rs. 1,25,000 ; it was Rs. 1,90,000 in 1957-58, Rs. 2,55,000 during 1958-59 and Rs. 5,55,704 during 1964-65.

Manufacture of Lathes

Manufacture of lathes is the speciality of this concern which has placed in the market lathes of various sizes and types. Not only is it making cone pulley lathes of various sizes, but it is also producing all-geared head lathes. The "RL" type of lathe is one of its achievements in the manufacture of all-geared head lathes. The lathes of this type are used in the various Railway workshops in the country, large manufacturing concerns producing diesel engines and various technical institutes. Another type of lathe called "LK 200 Universal Centre Lathe" is strongly braced with cross ribs which provide a rigid framework to the lathe, so that the initial accuracy of the lathe is maintained throughout its life. The strongly constructed head stock is of functional and streamlined design. The spindle which is not under belt tension eliminates vibration and fulfils one of the main conditions for the turning of smooth surfaces. The spindle is made of good quality alloy steel, heat-treated and precision-ground. The spindle drives the feed and screw-cutting box through a reverse clutch and change gears. The multi-disc clutch enables a quick stop and reverse of the lathe. Another type called the "Bombay Lathe" is a gap bed, self-acting, sliding, surfacing and screw-cutting lathe which is capable of an extremely wide diversity of work both for production and maintenance. Another type called the "Madras Lathe" is specially designed with cross ribs, thus providing utmost degree of rigidity. It is made of special grade alloy of heavy duty cast iron. "Harihar C Lathes" are designed with diagonal ribs to provide utmost degree of rigidity. It is also made of special grade alloy of heavy duty cast iron "Harihar No. 2" lathe has taper adjustable bearings of ample area. The "Harihar MB Type" lathes are also of good quality like "Harihar No. 2" lathes. "Shimoga No. 1" lathes and "Bhadravati No. 2" are also known for quality. "Harihar" lathes are suitable for small workshops and garages, while the "Shimoga" lathes are suited for heavy duty work in modern workshops. "Bhadravati" lathes are useful for cotton press rollers and long-length jobs. Apart from these, there are two more types namely the "Bangalore type" and the "Poona type". The former is specially suited for heavy duty work and the latter is useful for technical schools and colleges. The "RL" type of lathes and other big types are specially designed and built for large factories, railway and other workshops. All these lathes are manufactured according to first grade precision prescribed by the Machine Tool Controller.

Besides lathes of various types and sizes, the Kirloskar concern at Harihar is manufacturing planing machines, Hacksaw machines, drilling machines and presses. The "Elephant" planing machine and "Parekh" wood-planer have been approved by many

factories. The Cobra Hacksaw machine is of modern design and is very rigidly built for cutting heavy material upto 9 inches diameter. "Dohad" and "Delhi" drilling machines can do the drilling up to 1 inch and 1½ inches respectively, while the "Zebra" and "Parekh" presses can press tin.

The company has taken up the manufacture of "9-C" combination turret target lathes, and "No. 2-D" capstan lathes. The company opened a new branch at Hubli in 1965 and this branch is manufacturing centre and capstan lathes.

Cotton Textiles

The central position which Davangere occupies in the cotton growing area makes it ideally suited for the location of the cotton textile industry. There is also a large number of handlooms, giving employment to more workers than the large-scale factories do. There are nine textile mills in the district, out of which eight are at Davangere and one at Harihar. Out of these nine factories, one factory, *viz.*, Hamsagar Textiles at Harihar is run on a medium scale basis.

The first textile mill in the district was established at Davangere in 1939; it was the Davangere Cotton Mills Ltd. This mill first confined itself to spinning only but later on it was developed so as to produce a variety of cloths of good quality and durability. Other textile mills followed in course of the years, the latest to be established being Sri Anjaneya Cotton Mills (Private) Ltd., Davangere. Particulars of these mills are given on the next page.

The main raw materials consumed are cotton and yarn. The mills manufacture their own yarn cut of the indigenous cotton, both of medium and short staple kinds. Though cotton is largely purchased locally, the bigger mills import foreign cotton to spin yarn of higher counts. The other raw materials used are chemicals and certain auxiliaries which are obtained from Bombay, Poona and Bangalore. The products manufactured are long-cloth, shirtings, dhoties, saries, suitings, towels, bed-sheets, etc.

Some of the existing textile mills are also proposing to expand their production capacity in order to meet the steadily increasing demand. In view of the abundance of raw materials, the plentitude of labour and a good network of communications connecting different places in and out of the district, there is every possibility for the cotton textile industry in the district to forge ahead.

Cotton-ginning and pressing

Cotton ginning and pressing has always been an important industry in this district. Davangere, which is the centre of textile mills and ginning factories and also a centre of trade—since it is favourably linked both by railway and roads to other trading centres—was the only place in the whole of the old Mysore State where cotton was gained on a large scale with the help of

LARGE-SCALE TEXTILE MILLS IN CHITRADURGA DISTRICT (1965-66).

Name of the Establishment	*Description of the Industry*	*Persons Employed*	*Capital investment*	*No. of Spindles*	*Average production per year*
1	2	3	4	5	6
The Davangere Cotton Mills Ltd	Cotton Spinning and Weaving.	1,984	185.98 lakhs	40,864 Spindles. 518 looms.	Yarn : 23,13,648 kgs. Cloth : 68,03,772 ,, metres.
Sri Ganeshar Textile Mills, Ltd. Davangere.	Cotton Spinning	1,100	Rs. 100 lakhs	21,720	16,20,000 kgs.
Sri Shankara Textile Mills Ltd Davangere.	do	650	Expansion Scheme costs Rs. 25 lakhs.	18,040	3,600 kgs.
Sri Siddheswara Textile Mills, Ltd. (Hosiery) Davangere.	Hosiery	700	Rs. 103 lakhs	15,260	11,40,000 kgs.
Sri Chandrodaya Mills Ltd. Davangere	Spinning	446	Rs. 17 lakhs	13,200	7,09,776 kgs.
M/s. Yallamma Cotton Woollen and Silk Mills Co., Ltd. Tolahunse.	do	440	Present cost is about Rs. 20 lakhs and further expansion project cost will be Rs. 50 lakhs,—approximately for additional 13,000 spinndles.	10,968	170 bales
The Chigateri Mills, Davangere ..	do	165	Rs. 60 lakhs	12,000	3,600 kgs.
Sri Anjaneya Cotton Mills, (Private) Ltd., Davangere.	do	..	Rs. 50 lakhs	12,160 (sanctioned)	Newly started.

machinery. It is stated in the Mysore Gazetteer, Vol. V, compiled by Sri C. Hayavadana Rao, that, in 1930, there were 16 ginning factories and eight cotton presses in the district of Chitradurga.

The district has extensive areas of black cotton soil on which cotton is grown on a large scale. During 1964-65, the total area under cotton cultivation in the district was 1,11,887 acres of which 29,170 acres were in Chitradurga taluk alone. Next to Chitradurga, came Davangere taluk where 18,800 acres were under cotton. Though the remaining taluks are not of such importance as Davangere and Chitradurga, considerable areas are under cotton cultivation in those taluks also. The large-scale cultivation of cotton, especially of the 'Lakshmi' and 'Jayadhar' varieties, has given rise to the district's ginning and pressing industry. Before the emergence of ginning, cotton was spread on mats and beaten with sticks to remove dirt and to loosen it. Then it was spread on a stone slab and rolled by a thick iron roller up and down by feet. This separated the seeds from the cotton. Before the cotton was ready for the spinning wheel, and if it was too lumpy for spinning, it was fluffed up with a bow. It was then corded into rolls handy for the spinner. The wheel was turned by means of a handle with the right hand whilst with the left which held the cotton, the thread was spun on to the wheel. After the bobbin was full, the yarn was rewound on to a swift. This process was naturally laborious and slow.

The first ginning factory, *viz.*, the Kotturabasaveshwara Ginning Factory was established at Davangere in 1905. The First World War gave an incentive to the development of the industry and this period recorded an increase in the number of ginning and pressing factories. The pace of expansion was retarded after 1925, the Depression that set in about this time being perhaps responsible for this. And as said earlier, in 1930, there were 16 ginning factories and 8 cotton presses in the district. The period of the Second World War witnessed an increase in the number of such concerns. The importance of this industry in the district is also reflected in the number of persons engaged in it. The total number of ginning factories in the district in 1965 was 18 and the total number of gins in the district 230. Out of these, 13 ginning factories were at Davangere and five factories at Chitradurga. All of them were of the large type with double rollers.

The following were the ginning establishments in the district :—

Sl. No.	*Name of the Establishment*	*Place*
1.	The Mysore Spinning & Manufacturing Co., Ltd.	Chitradurga
2.	R. H. & Sons Ginning Factory ..	do
3.	Nanjundeshwara Ginning Factory ..	do
4.	West Patent Press Co., Ltd. ..	do
5.	Hanumantha Reddy & Sons ..	do

Sl. No.	Name of the Establishment	Place
6.	R. Hanumanthappa & Sons	Davangere
7.	Jagadguru Jayadeva Ginning Factory	do
8.	Basaveshwara Ginning Factory	do
9.	Kottur Basaweshwara Ginning Factory	do
10.	T. Basavanthappa & Sons	do
11.	Bondade Decorticating & Ginning Factory.	do
12.	Buckingham & Karnatic Co., Ltd.	do
13.	Prabhulingeshwara Factory	do
14.	Jain Ginning Factory	do
15.	Sri Shivayogeshwara Decorticating & Cotton Pressing.	do
16.	Lingeshwara Cotton Pressing	do
17.	Kirwadi Veerabasappa Ginning & Decorticating Factory.	do
18.	J. N. Ginning Factory	do

The tools and equipment required for this industry consist of cotton gins, cotton presses, boiler, electrical motor or oil engine and other sundry accessories. Double roller ginning machines are used by the factories. It is learnt that there is a short supply at present of new gins from foreign countries and the existing gins are all of foreign makes and they have become old.

Ginning begins during the harvesting season and the factories work for only six months from December to the end of May. Thus, the industry is seasonal in character. But some of the big concerns work all the year round. All the factories work to capacity during the busy season and some of them remain idle during the remaining period. During such periods of "enforced idleness", workers employed in some of these factories are diverted to supplementary avocations like decorticating of groundnut. Some of the ginning factories at Davangere and Chitradurga have installed decorticators also, as the season for cotton is only six months. Large quantities of groundnut are grown in the district and the factories undertake its decortication. The source of labour supply is the town itself in which the factories are situated and its neighbourhood. Workers are employed on both time-wage and piece-wage basis. Usually, in the pressing section, the payment is on piece-wage basis or on a contract system. The casual workers are paid daily wages. The types of workers employed in the factories are gin feeders and lashers; women are also employed as feeders or cleaners. Besides these workers, firemen, engine-drivers, oilmen, carpenters and engineers are also employed. The number of workers employed in all these factories in 1965 was about 900. In addition to these workers, temporary workers are also employed during the busy season. The usual wages paid are from Rs. 1.50 to Rs. 1.75 for a man per day of eight hours' work and at the rate of Re. 1 to Rs. 1.25 for the women workers.

A notable advantage which exists in this district for the development of the cotton ginning and pressing industry is that the abundant cotton grown in the different areas of the district is easily transportable both by road and rail. Chitradurga and Davangere have got railway stations and a good network of roads connects the different places of the district.

Finance for this industry is being found mostly on partnership basis. For some of the establishments, banking facilities for obtaining loans are also available.

The local merchants have trade connections with traders and owners of textile mills at Bombay, Sholapur, Ahmedabad and such other places. Cotton is brought to ginning factories from the interior villages in bullock carts and in some cases by motor trucks.

The areas which are by nature well suited for the development of this industry are Davangere and Chitradurga. Recently the Agricultural Produce Marketing Co-operative Society at Davangere has started a ginning factory on co-operative basis.

The availability of long staple cotton and necessary labour are the helpful factors for the growth of this industry.

Oil Mills

The vegetable oil industry is fairly old in this district. Prior to the introduction of oil mills, oil was produced by means of the village *ghanas* or expellers. The persons connected with oil pressing with the help of these *ghanas* are known as 'ganigas'. These *ghanas* exist even to-day in large numbers alongside the recent oil mills. The *ghana* is an immense mortar and pestle of stone or wood. The mortar is 6 feet and 9 inches above ground, with a pestle let into an equal distance underground. A wooden beam, about 18 feet long, pressing at one end closely against the foot of the mill has an arm projecting upwards for about a third of its length, which is attached to the head of the pestle. The mill is driven by oxen yoked at the farther end of the beam, by pulling it round and round.

Groundnut is one of the most important commercial crops in Chitradurga district covering, in 1964-65, more than 93,000 acres; other oilseeds covered about 59,300 acres. The first oil mill, namely, Messrs Brahmappa Tavanappanavar Ltd., at Davangere, was started in 1918. At first, the progress was not much on account of the Depression of the 1920's. During the Second World War and the post-war period when the demand for groundnut oil increased, the oil mill industry in the district made a rapid progress. There were, in the year 1965, 17 oil mills with 66 expellers of standard size in the district. Out of these, 10 mills were at Davangere, four mills at Challakere and surrounding places, two at Chitradurga and one at Harihar. The largest among these consisted of 18

expellers and the smallest consisted of one expeller. Particulars of some of the prominent mills are given in the following table:—

Sl. No.	Place	Name of the concern	Number of persons employed
1.	Davangere	Brahmappa Tavanappanavar	300
2.	Do	Jagadguru Jayadeva Ginning & Oil Mills	30
3.	Do	Iyanahalli Channabasappa & Sons.	60
4.	Do	Sri Gurusiddarameswara Oil Mills	50
5.	Do	Ravi Vegetable Oil Industries	135
6.	Do	S. J. S. Oil Mills	30
7.	Do	Veerasiddeshwara Oil Mills	30
8.	Do	Jayalakshmi Oil Mills	50
9.	Challakere	Sri Vinayaka Oil Mills	10
10.	Do	Saraswati Oil Mills & Industry	50
11.	Do	Veerabhadra Oil Mills	40

All these factories in the district were registered under the Factories Act. The capital investment in the industry is estimated to be about Rs. one crore and twenty lakhs. It is estimated that the amount invested for the installation of a single power-driven expeller was about Rs. 50,000.

The machines and plant used in the vegetable oil industry are steam engines, boilers, expellers, rotary machines, filter presses and decorticators. The machines and spare parts are not imported from outside the country, but are made in Bombay, Ludhiana and Vijayawada. Groundnut, sesamum and other oil seeds are crushed in these factories, groundnut constituting a major part. The products of the industry are oil and oil cakes. The annual production in the district of oil of all varieties was about 1,400 tons and that of oil cakes was about 1,200 tons. The types of labour employed are engineers, fitters, workers on expellers and boilers and other skilled and unskilled workers. Women labour is employed only for cleaning purposes.

The oil industry is in existence in rural areas also purely as a cottage industry, employing the traditional *ghanas*. The Khadi and Village Industries Board has introduced improved *ghanas* and four co-operative societies have been started in the district with improved *ghanas* for better production. The societies are: (1) Oil Ghana Co-operative Society, Kogunde, (2) Siddeshwara Oil Co-operative Society, Aimangala, (3) Basaweshwara Oil Co-operative Society, Hosadurga and (4) Janata Oil Co-operative Society, Kolahal.

Decortication

The decortication of groundnut is a small-scale industry. It is being carried on as a supplementary occupation in some ginning factories at Davangere and Chitradurga, since in those factories ginning of cotton is only a seasonal industry. Cotton is ginned from December to the end of May and during the remaining period, these seasonal factories undertake decortication of groundnuts.

There were, in 1965, five ginning and pressing factories in Chitradurga town where decortication of groundnut was also undertaken and about the same number at Davangere. There were no factories in Chitradurga district which were exclusively engaged in the decortication of groundnut. Since 1954, in some of the factories, cotton seeds are being crushed and the oil produced is made use of for making *vanaspati* and the cakes are used for cattle feeding. The machinery used consists of oil engines, steam engines and rollers. Automatic feeding machines are mostly used. Coal and groundnut husk are the main fuel. Engineers, firemen, engine drivers and other skilled and unskilled workers are the types of employees in these concerns. Women labour is also employed. The total quantity of groundnut shelled in the factories during 1964-65 was about 22,000 tons.

Small-scale Industries

In the industrial development of a region, small-scale industries are of considerable importance. The Small Industries Service Institute, Bangalore, conducted a survey of small-scale industries in Chitradurga district in the year 1960. As per the report prepared by the Institute, there were, in all, 193 small-scale industrial units in the district, which had invested about Rs. 46 lakhs and their output was valued at about Rs. 91 lakhs. They had provided employment to over 1,300 persons. These industries mainly related to foundry and general engineering, machine tools and parts, agricultural implements, steel furniture, automobiles repair, wood-working and wooden furniture, leather footwear, printing, rice and oil mills, etc.

Foundry and General Engineering

There were 18 units in the district engaged in foundry and general engineering works, with an estimated total investment of about Rs. 8.44 lakhs. They had employed about 230 persons and produced articles worth about 4.94 lakhs of rupees. The products manufactured by these units were chain pulley blocks, sheet-metal parts, structurals like gates, grills, door and window frames, oil engine parts, cast iron metric weights, man-hole covers, pipe joints, castings for floor mills, other general castings and the like. Almost all these units were concentrated at Davangere and Harihar.

Machine Tools and Parts

The number of small-scale industrial units engaged in the manufacture of machine tools and parts was six. They had invested about Rs. 6.17 lakhs and employed over 200 persons. The value of total production was about Rs. 8.41 lakhs per annum. The products manufactured in these units included ½ inch capacity drilling machines, 4 jaw and 3 jaw chucks, ball-bearing and plain lathe centres, gears for machine tools and oil engines, magnetic chucks, hand presses, trays, crankshaft gears, various other parts for machine tools and water circulating pumps. All these units were located at Harihar.

Agricultural Implements

Agricultural implements such as sickles, pick-axes, mumties, kulas, etc., were being manufactured by about 10 units in the district. They had invested about Rs. 94,300 and produced articles worth about Rs. 1.34 lakhs. They had provided employment to about 85 persons.

Steel Furniture

There were only four units in the district engaged in the manufacture of steel furniture, such as cots, chairs, tables, cradles, iron safes, racks and steel trunks. The estimated total investment of these was about Rs. 57,000, while the total value of production was about Rs. 70,000. These units had employed about forty persons. With the improvement in the standard of living of the people, demand for steel furniture has been on the increase, which means a bright future for this industry.

Automobile Repair Shops

Six units were engaged in the repair and servicing of automobiles in the district. All but one of these units were located at Davangere. The estimated total investment of these units was about Rs. 75,000, while the estimated total value of the repairs and services done was over Rs. 36,000 per annum. About 35 persons had been employed by these units.

Wood-working and Wooden Furniture

There were seven wood-working units, *i.e.*, saw mills and nine units engaged in the manufacture of wooden furniture, like chairs, tables, cots, racks, door and window frames. While the saw mills had invested about Rs. 1.97 lakhs, the furniture-making units had invested over Rs. 31,000. The value of production of the wood-working units was estimated at Rs. 2.81 lakhs, while that of the furniture units was over Rs. 64,200 per annum. They had, together, provided employment to about 130 persons. These units were located mostly at Davangere, Harihar and Chitradurga. In 1963, the number of saw mills had increased to eight in the district.

Leather Footwear

There were four leather footwear units of small-scale industry-type in the district, engaged in the manufacture of chappals and shoes. They had invested about Rs. 11,000 and produced articles worth about Rs. 28,500 per annum. About 20 persons were working in these units.

Printing Presses

At Davangere and Chitradurga, there were in all 17 printing presses. Apart from undertaking various types of printing works, some of these units also manufactured accounts books, writing pads etc. The estimated total investment of these presses was about 0.27 lakhs of rupees, while the estimated value of their production was about Rs. 5.9 lakhs. They had, in all, employed over 120 persons. In 1963, there were 34 printing presses in the entire district.

Besides these small-scale industrial units, there were several other units also, engaged in electrical repairs, cart manufacture, tyre-retreading, cement products, manufacture of polythene bags, hosiery manufacture, confectionery and toy manufacture. All these units were in the private sector and were contributing to the industrial development of the district. **Other Small-scale Industries**

With the various measures of Governmental assistance such as provision of cheap and enough power, supply of machinery on hire-purchase basis, financial and raw material assistance, establishment of industrial estates and availability of technical and economic guidance by the Small Industries Service Institute, the number of small-scale industries in the district has been gradually growing in the recent years.

Chitradurga district had over 8,150 handlooms in 1964. Accurate information about the total value of the output, etc., cannot be easily obtained. As the industry is scattered all over the district, detailed and definite enquiries can only be made with great difficulty. It was, however, estimated that there were in 1964, 5,868 looms in the district for the manufacture of cotton cloth with about 5,000 weavers. The important centres of handloom weaving in the district are Chitradurga, Hosadurga, Molakalmuru and Harihar. Besides these places, a majority of villages in the district have looms manufacturing cotton cloths. In the old days, the weavers being illiterate, ignorant and conservative, did not make serious attempts to devise new patterns and even if new ideas were brought to their notice, they were reluctant to adopt them. However, gradually the antiquated throw-shuttle type of pitlooms was replaced by fly-shuttle pitlooms, but even now, in certain places, the throw-shuttle type of pitlooms continues to be used. Dobbies are used according to the type of weaving. Frame-looms, take-up motion attachments and pedal-looms are very rare in the district. **Handloom weaving**

The raw materials required in the handloom weaving industry are cotton yarn, art silk and silk for borders, colours and chemicals. In addition to what is produced locally, cotton yarn is brought mainly from Bombay and partly from Gadag and Sholapur by the wholesale merchants in the district and is distributed among the weavers. The yarn is supplied to the weavers in bundles and knots. The silk which is used for borders is got from Bangalore and Bombay. Art silk is obtained from Hospet, Gadag and Bangalore. The chemicals required are got from Bombay.

The main handloom products of this district are sarees, blouse-pieces and dhoties of both fine and coarse counts. In addition, towels and bed-sheets are produced in Chitradurga, Hosadurga and Molakalmuru towns.

Most of the weavers possess their own looms and the supply of raw material like yarn is made to them by local master-weavers or financiers who take back from them the finished products and pay them the weaving charges. The weaving establishments are mostly family concerns. The women of the family do warping, drawing in, denting and winding of yarn, and the men weave. In bigger establishments where the family cannot cope with the work, outside labour is employed on piece rate. Generally, master-weavers advance loans and raw materials to weavers and collect back finished goods. The dependence of the weavers on the financiers for supply of raw materials and sale of finished goods is the main cause of their low earnings. They are heavily indebted to the *Sahukars* and they are unable to get a fair price for their products.

Cotton-weaving

Recent years have seen efforts being made to free the weavers from the clutches of the financiers through the establishment of co-operative societies. There were, in 1965-66, 25 cotton weavers' co-operative societies in the district. The societies make arrangements for purchase of cotton and silk yarn, dye-stuff etc., for their members. Raw materials are issued to weaver-members and finished goods are collected in return on payment of wages. The weavers' societies are also striving for improvement in working techniques in order to increase the production capacity and also to improve the quality of the handloom products. The introduction of the fly-shuttle looms on an extensive scale in recent years is chiefly due to the determined efforts made by the Government to improve handloom weaving. Attempts are also being made to devise better appliances for winding, warping, sizing and beaming. Along with the introduction of new methods in weaving and of new appliances for preliminary operations, efforts are also being made to emancipate the weavers from the control of the middlemen by bringing them to the co-operative fold. The statement on next page gives statistical information relating to the cotton weavers' co-operative societies in the district during 1965-66.

The more important cotton handloom weaving centres are located in Molakalmuru, Challakere, Davangere, Hosadurga and Harihar taluks. Sufficient financial assistance is given to all the co-operative societies in the shape of share and working capital loans and the like through the Mysore State Cotton Handloom Weavers' Society, Bangalore. This Society was running three cotton emporia in the district.

COTTON WEAVERS' CO-OPERATIVE SOCIETIES IN CHITRADURGA DISTRICT (1965-66).

Sl. No.	Name of Society	No. of members	Number of Looms	Share amount	Amount drawn from Apex Society	Loan from D. C. C. Bank	Loan towards share capital
				Rs	Rs	Rs	Rs
1.	Cotton W. C. S., Chitradurga	143	289	1,020	24,000	..	..
2.	Cotton W. C. S., Turuvanur	76	200	1,435	22,000	25,000	846
3.	Davangere W. C. S.	150	347	3,643	26,000	54,000	3,643
4.	Jai Bhavani W. C. S., Harihar	61	211	2,535	23,600	30,000	1,649
5.	Vittal Naige W. C. S., Harihar	138	203	1,380	14,000	45,000	1,562
6.	Vasana W. C. S.	249	332	1,482	21,000	45,000	3,684
7.	Kokkanur W. C. S.	..	52	..	..	..	..
8.	Horakeredevarapura W. C. S.	244	322	3,678	19,000	60,000	3,678
9.	Malladihalli W. C. S.	159	280	423	1,500	25,000	..
10.	Ramagiri W. C. S.	111	75	415	16,000	..	..
11.	Kallavanagathihalli W. C. S.	113	70	810	..	..	..
12.	Hosadurga W. C. S.	254	426	1,421	24,200	61,495	..
13.	Bagur W. C. S.	197	200	2,005	19,300	45,000	3,923
14.	Srirampura W. C. S.	167	156	1,200	17,200	..	..
15.	Belagur W. C. S.	50	222	411	..	..	..
16.	Challakere W. C. S.	..	48	..	..	..	..
17.	Katamdevarakote W. C. S.	80	160	1,800	18,000	15,000	313
18.	Haravigondanahalli W. C. S.	71	175	1,755	6,000	21,800	463
19.	Meerasabihalli W. C. S.	33	136	345	4,000	6,000	345
20.	Gosikere W. C. S.	171	87	1,245	9,000	10,500	1,245
21.	Molakalmuru W. C. S.	192	297	2,305	12,000	6,000	2,305
22.	Murudi W. C. S.	107	85	1,309	14,100	19,500	1,520
23.	Kondlahalli W. C. S.	101	362	1,610	17,000	17,000	1,610
24.	Hiriyur-Bharamapura W. C. S.	..	74	..	5,000	..	..
25.	Jagalur W. C. S.	..	217	..	..	..	..
	Total	2,867	5,026	32,257	2,22,400	5,40,795	35,627

W. C. S.=Weavers' Co-operative Society.

Silk-weaving

The weaving of pure silk cloth is confined mostly to Molakalmuru. The weaving industry of Molakalmuru has a provincial reputation and nearly half of the population of the town is engaged in it. The looms generally used in weaving silk are the primitive pitlooms but recently fly-shuttles have been introduced. There were, in 1964, 590 looms in the whole of the district manufacturing silk fabrics. The chief operations prior to weaving are twisting, degumming, dyeing and warping. Silk fabrics of stout texture and excellent designs are made by the *pattegars* and *khatris* in Molakalmuru. The chief articles produced are sarees *khanas* and articles of conventional dress such as *vastras* and *mogatas*. Owing to the improvement in the handloom industry and the introduction of new designs for persons of discerning taste, the export trade in silk fabrics has been steadily expanding.

At Hosadurga, Harihar and a few other places, cloths are produced out of what is locally known as *vude reshme* (mercerised cotton). They are not so valuable as those made of pure silk and lose colour soon but cloths of very good and distinctive designs are made and are easily sold.

Three silk weavers' co-operative societies, *viz*., the Markandeya Silk Weavers' Co-operative Society, Town Weavers' Co-operative Society and the Reshme Kaimaggada Nekarara Co-operative Society, have been organised at Molakalmuru by the Government to give adequate aid to the silk weavers. These societies advance loans to weavers and supply raw materials to them and are striving to improve the techniques of weaving and to expand the industry in Molakalmuru.

Wool-weaving

The weaving of *kamblis* (woollen blankets) is carried on all over the district but those made at Yemmachatti, Hampapur, Davangere and a few surrounding villages, Halekal in Jagalur taluk and Haralahalli and Halivana in Harihar taluk are very fine and have more than a local reputation. The district has the largest number of woollen handlooms in the State. There were, in 1964, 2,193 looms manufacturing woollen fabrics in the district.

Of all woollen fabrics, the *kambli* or blanket is an indispensable article of covering for almost all classes. The finest kinds of these which are made in Chitradurga district are of superior value and are made only to order. Their manufacture is a special feature of this industry in the district. The fleece from the first shearing when the sheep are about six months old, must be used in making these *kamblis*. Every successive fleece becomes coarser. The wool is usually black and the deeper this colour the more valuable the wool is reckoned. The fleece is shorn twice a year. Twelve sheep give as much wool as makes a *kambli*.

Before the sheep are shorn, they are well washed. The wool, when it has been shorn, is teased with fingers, and then beaten with a bow like cotton, and formed into bundles for spinning. This operation is performed both by men and women. Some tamarind-seeds are bruised, and after having been infused for a night in cold water, are boiled. The thread when about to be put into the loom is sprinkled with the cold decoction. This brings shining and nicety to the finished produce. The loom is of the same simple structure as that for cotton weaving. The newly made cloth is washed by beating it on a stone; and when dried it is fit for sale. The high price of the finer kinds of blankets is due to selecting wool sufficiently fine, the quantity of which in any one fleece is very small.

The bulk of the demand for *kamblis* comes partly from the Malnad areas in the State and partly from the Nilgiris and Ceylon. It is a recognised custom that the labourers employed in the plantations should be presented with *kamblis* every year before the commencement of the monsoon season.

There were eighteen woollen weavers' co-operative societies in the district in 1965-66. These societies are advancing loans towards the working capital of the weavers. Besides, they are supplying improved tools and implements. The continuous efforts of the All-India Handloom Board and the State Government to develop the industry are bearing fruit. This industry has a good future and is likely to expand on a firm footing in the years to come.

The following statement gives particulars of woollen handloom weavers' co-operative societies in Chitradurga district pertaining to the year 1965-66 :—

WOOLLEN HANDLOOM CO-OPERATIVE SOCIETIES IN CHITRADURGA DISTRICT (1965-66).

Sl. No.	Name of Society	No. of members	Share amount	Working Capital loan	Wool clipping loan	Business loan	Share Capital loan
			Rs.	Rs.	Rs.	Rs.	Rs.
1.	District Kambli Manufacturing W.W.C.S., Chitradurga	960	14,735	71,800	1,30,000	36,000	..
2.	Woollen W. C. S., Turuvanur ..	190	2,803	8,500	18,000	5,000	..
3.	W. W. C. S., Hosadurga ..	313	6,900	29,000	15,000	8,000	..
4.	W. W. C. S., Bagur ..	140	1,087	11,000	10,500	8,000	..
5.	W. W. C. S., Honnur ..	176	..	..	..	..	..
6.	W. W. C. S., Oblapur ..	98	437	7,600	..	2,550	712
7.	W. W. C. S., Challakere ..	168	1,050	..	..	..	..
8.	W. W. C. S., Chikkamadure ..	67	629	..	..	..	..
9.	W. W. C. S., Kanajanahalli ..	129	3,012	25,200	19,000	6,000	..
10.	W. W. C. S., Harthikote ..	286	5,407	27,200	15,200	13,000	..
11.	W. W. C. S., Holekal ..	83	612	11,800	5,800	3,800	450
12.	W. W. C. S., Halivana ..	164	1,025	10,000	7,500	4,500	1,875
13.	W. W. C. S., Kondlahalli ..	253	5,355	22,100	55,000	13,000	..
14.	W. W. C. S., Mayakonda ..	136	1,185	..	4,000	..	..
15.	W. W. C. S., Dandinakurubarahatti	50	500	..	..	..	..
16.	W. W. C. S., Mahadevapura ..	57	1,440	..	..	..	869
17.	W. W. C. S., Thimlapura ..	50	500	..	..	..	..
18.	W. W. C. S., Konasagara ..	221	937	..	..	..	..
	Total ..	3,541	47,612	2,24,200	2,82,000	91,850	3,906

W. W. C. S.=Woollen Weavers' Co-operative Society.

Beedi Manufacture

At present, there are eight beedi factories in the district. The process of beedi-making requires tobacco and *tambak* leaves. Tobacco is imported mainly from Miraj, Sangli and Hyderabad and the *tambak* leaves are imported from Shimoga and Hyderabad. The value of the annual production of these factories was estimated at about Rs. 2,50,000 in 1965, the production being consumed almost entirely locally. In making beedis, the leaves which are used for covers are soaked in water for a day or two and then dried. The veins are removed and then the leaves are cut into rectangular pieces. Tobacco powder is placed in one of the corners of the piece, which is then rolled into a tapering shape on the palm of the left hand. It is then tied with a thread and the mouth is closed by pressing the edges; the bottom end is pressed but not entirely closed.

Coir Co-operative

There is only one Coir Craft Co-operative Society at Kellodu in Hosadurga taluk, where there is an abundance of raw material. The State Coir Board has sanctioned a sum of Rs. 17,700 as loan and Rs. 10,800 as grant for the development of the society. A common facility centre has been sanctioned out of N.E.S. funds at a cost of Rs. 17,600. A building has been constructed at Belagur and machineries were to be brought and erected.

Bamboo and Mat-weaving

Two co-operative societies, namely, the Medar Kyatheshwara Bamboo Weavers' Co-operative Society, Chitradurga, and Jagadamba Mat Weaving Co-operative Society in Hiriyur have been provided with loans and grants for the development of the bamboo and mat weaving industry.

Carpentry and Smithy Co-operatives

Four co-operative societies, *viz.*, Sri Kalika Prasanna Cart Manufacturing Co-operative Society, Bommagondanakere, Molakalmuru taluk, Panchanana Carpentry and Smithy Society, Harihar, and the Carpentry and Smithy Societies at Maraghatta and Hampanur, have been given financial assistance for development of carpentry and smithy industry. There were in all 342 members in these societies.

Khadi and Village Industries

There were 29 industrial co-operatives of different home industries such as pottery, leather-tanning and stitching, neera palm-gur, oil ghana, bee-keeping, ambar charkha which are financed by the State Khadi and Village Industries Board, Bangalore. The particulars of these societies are as follows :—

INDUSTRIAL CO-OPERATIVES IN CHITRADURGA DISTRICT, FINANCED BY THE STATE KHADI AND VILLAGE INDUSTRIES BOARD (1965-66)

Sl. No.	Name of Society	No. of members	Share amount	Grant	Loan
			Rs.	Rs.	Rs.
1.	Oil Ghana C. S., Chitradurga	22	1,162	600	3,475
2.	Janatha Oil C. S., Kolahal	18	460	1,600	4,475
3.	Ambar Charkha and Bee-keeping C. S., Sirigere	79	987	9,050	..
4.	Cobblers' C. S., Challakere	167	1,670	14,970	19,750
5.	Neera C. S., Parashurampura	40	500	150	1,500
6.	Potters' C. S., Hiredevarapura	32	192	500	4,500
7.	Potters' C. S., B. Durga	35	175	500	4,500
8	Neera Palm Gur C. S., Holalkere	28	655	9,303	5,500
9.	Leather C. S., B. Durga	124	800	500	2,500
10.	Maheshwaraswamy Khadi and Village Industries Co-operative Society, Thuppadahalli.	12	420	800	1,800
11.	Cobblers' C. S., Bidarakere	73	677	6,970	3,000
12.	Neera C. S., Bilichodu	34	408	4,095	2,150
13.	Neera C. S., Hosadurga	20	200	550	3,100
14.	Basaveshwara Oil C. S., Hosadurga	14	550	2,400	7,625
15.	Pottery C. S., Davangere	134	4,975	20,200	35,260
16.	Rural Pottery C. S., Davangere	38	675	1,410	2,660
17.	Craft and Village Industries C. S., Davangere	32	1,575	1,600	6,350
18.	Neera Palm Gur C. S., Bharamasagara	20	200	550	400
19.	Siddeshwara Oil C. S., Aimangala	20	300	1,600	8,350
20.	Pottery C. S., Kolahal	35	400	..	3,500
21.	Pottery C. S., Halivana	54	370	..	..
22.	Khadi Gramodyoga C. S., Vasana	50	500	..	..
23.	Potters' C. S., Bilichodu	50	375	9,750	..
24.	Neera Palm Gur C. S., Davangere	27	320	655	1,425
25.	Navabharatha Khadi Gramodyoga C. S., Davangere	67	5,617	39,260	12,755
26.	Leather Craft C. S., Rampura	50	500	..	..
27.	Aloe-fibre Craft C. S., Bharamasagara	50	500	3,000	800
28.	Oil Ghana C S., Kogunde	50	500	3,000	1,500
29.	Gramodyoga C. S., Ramgiri	40	400	6,500	..
	Total	1,471	26,463	13,35,74	1,37,750

Training Centres

There is one Rural Artisan Training Institute at Chitradurga. It is being run in a Government building. Six crafts, *viz.*, leather work, cotton weaving, wool weaving, smithy, carpentry and coir craft are taught in this institution for the present. There are one Instructor and one Junior Instructor for each craft. Trainees are paid stipends.

A Model Carpentry and Smithy Centre is run at Chitradurga under the Small Industries Service Institute Schemes. The centre is being run in a Government building. There are two sections, *i.e.*, carpentry and smithy. There are supervisors and skilled workers in both the sections. It is a production-*cum*-training centre. Provision is made for in-service training for those who have completed 1½ years' training at the Artisan Training Institute. Trainees are paid stipends.

A Mat Weaving Training Centre is being run at Hiriyur under the handicrafts schemes. There is provision for 10 trainees and they are paid stipends. There are one Instructor and one Assistant Instructor.

A Sheet Metal and Electroplating Training Centre is run at Davangere under Small Industries Service Institute Schemes. The centre is housed in a rented building. There is provision for 15 trainees per year and they are given stipends. There is a Foreman assisted by one Instructor. Proposals were under way to construct a new building for the centre.

A Palm Gur Training Centre at Kodaganur and a Leather Stitching Centre at Doddasiddavanahalli were also functioning in the district.

There is a Government Common Facility Centre at Harihar. It has been located in a rented building. Arrangements were being made to erect machineries. There is one Foreman at the Centre.

Displaced Goldsmiths' Co-operatives

Five co-operative societies have been registered in this district exclusively for the benefit of displaced goldsmiths in the following taluks :

1. Chitradurga.
2. Davangere.
3. Challakere.
4. Hosadurga.
5. Hiriyur.

Upto 1965-66, the two societies at Chitradurga and Davangere had been sanctioned machinery loans of Rs. 40,000 and Rs. 30,000 respectively and they had placed orders for getting the required machineries.

Recently, the Government have sanctioned, a scheme for the grant of loans, not exceeding Rs. 1,000, to individual displaced goldsmiths for starting petty shops or cottage industries. Accordingly a sum of Rs. 50,000 has been allotted to this district. The scheme is being implemented by the Co-operative Department with the assistance of the Revenue Department. A screening committee consisting of the Deputy Commissioner, Chitradurga, as Chairman, the Assistant Director of Industries and Commerce as convenor and a non-official as member has been formed to recommend applications for loans.

A tailoring section has been opened at the Artisans' Training Institute, Chitradurga, for the benefit of displaced goldsmiths. A total of 25 trainees were undergoing training during 1965-66. The staff consists of one Instructor and one Assistant Instructor. A sum of Rs. 30 per month is being paid as stipend to every trainee. There is provision for 30 trainees in the section.

Industrial Estate, Harihar

With a view to promoting small-scale industrial units in particular places in the district several facilities have been made available and an Industrial Estate has been functioning in Harihar since 1964. The efforts of the Government in this respect have borne fruit and so far nine units have started work in the Estate. They are the Craft Tools (Private) Ltd., Karnik Engineering Works, Krishna Industrial Works, Chudasuma Engineering Works, Siddeshwara Engineering Works, Ranganatha Engineering Works, Shankar Workshop, Siddhartha Engineering Works and Savanth Engineering Works. The total cost of establishment of the Estate was about seven lakhs of rupees.

There were 111 power looms in the district during 1964-65. A sum of Rs. 2,52,500 was advanced as loans for the purchase of these looms to various private agencies. An additional sum of Rs. 17,959 was also advanced for the purchase of accessories. The total financial help given for the promotion of this scheme amounted to Rs. 3,45,147.

Chitradurga district has great potentialities for industrial development. Roads have been developed in recent years affording incentives to industrialists to start industries. Chitradurga district is well placed with an adequate mileage of railways, National Highways and State Highways. Besides, power is also available from Jog, Tungabhadra and Bhadra generating units and

more power is expected to be made available for industrial development. Certain raw materials are available in plenty awaiting exploitation on a large scale. One of them is cotton which is grown largely on the expansive black soil of the district. This abundance of cotton will, in future years, enable expansion of the textile industries of the district. Groundnut and other oilseeds are grown to a large extent and this will help the development of oil industries as also starting of soap factories in the district.

There is also scope for starting a sugar factory at Hiriyur. During 1964-65, 4,300 acres of land were under sugar-cane cultivation in this area and efforts were being made to increase it. It has been estimated that an area of about 15,000 acres of land can be brought under sugar-cane cultivation in the coming years.

Further, there is considerable scope for expansion of other small-scale industries like carpentry, smithy, leather-tanning and stitching, manufacture of *kamblis*, mat-weaving. The Five-Year Plans lay great stress on developing of cottage industries and several schemes are being implemented in the district.

Labour welfare

Labour organizations registered in Chitradurga district numbered 12 in March 1965. It may be said that each major industry with the exception of a very few is represented by at least one union.

Welfare of industrial labour is an important factor for the development of industries in any district. The Mysore Shops and Establishments Act has been made applicable to Davangere city and Harihar, Chitradurga, Hiriyur and Challakere towns of the district. There is a Labour Officer at Davangere who has administrative jurisdiction over the entire district for enforcement of labour laws.

As regards welfare measures, several of the industrial concerns in the district are providing free medical aid to the workers and free elementary education to their children and are also running canteens and co-operative societies. Free medical aid is provided to workers by a number of other concerns also.

In regard to housing, major industrial organisations in the district have provided many of their employees with quarters and the Mysore Housing Board has constructed many good houses, providing accommodation to the people working in several industrial concerns in the towns.

Sports facilities, maintenance of creches and free film shows are some of the other amenities provided by bigger industrial concerns in the district.

There are also three employers' organisations in the district. They are the Trades Association at Davangere, the Merchants' Association at Chitradurga and the Mill Owners' Association at Davangere.

CHAPTER VI

BANKING, TRADE AND COMMERCE

PART A—BANKING AND FINANCE

Indigenous Banking

THE system of ancient indigenous banking in the district of Chitradurga, though obscure in details, presents a striking contrast to the organised banking facilities of the present day. The middle-man, who was always dreaded but who was always in demand, dominated the credit structure of the rural parts in the old days. The indigenous banking systems were largely concentrated in a few affluent men, who had all the advantages to lend money at various rates of interest. For small sums of loan money, mutual trust and confidence constituted the sole security; there were instances, doubtless, of default in returning these loans; but by and large, the average borrower redeemed his commitments and settled all claims, to the satisfaction of the lender. There was no organised method of lending or mode of collection. It was a continuing process of trading with capital and a large number of men made it their profession to lend money and gather the interest. Economic structure in its modern aspects had not developed fully and those who were in need of money rushed to the money-lenders for obtaining their pressing needs. The entire trade of the district was affected adversely by the absence of correct banking methods. The rates of interest charged were also exorbitant and altogether prohibitive in some cases. Cases were many where borrowers went on paying interest which sometimes exceeded the capital.

In the days prior to the introduction of organised banking methods, the general trade of the district rested to a large extent on outside financial help which was responsible for goods being moved to distant places like Bombay and Madras. Chitradurga had the advantage of obtaining ready facilities in the sphere of finance flowing from Bombay. The money so obtained had a lesser rate of interest than the money obtained from Madras.

Looking back to the days of the Vijayanagar kingdom, a much clearer picture is available of the way in which money was lent for economic betterment. It is on record (Mysore Gazetteer, Lewis Rice, Vol. I, page 586) that the Government of the day

advanced money to the tiller who ploughed one *vokkala* with one plough. With the aid of this financial assistance, the raiyat used to buy cattle, agricultural implements and other necessities in order to increase the yield from his land. It may be safely surmised that this method of lending money to the raiyat was the forerunner of modern organised banking methods. But with the passage of time and the frequent wars and feudal over-lordships, this healthy system of the Government helping the farmer declined and the wealthy few began to lend money at exorbitant rates of interest and styled themselves as guardians of credit facilities.

In tracing the history of indigenous banking of the days preceding the present century, one cannot help noticing the peculiar method of lending money at the door of the borrower, on nothing more than a promised word or a visible security. As communications were still undeveloped, a few rich people who had great hold on the rural population, moved from place to place to advance money on specific rates of interest. Ledgers were maintained in the local language wherein all kinds of details were noted to make sure of the *bona fides* of the borrower. In the ledgers themselves, a crude method of book-keeping was followed with columns of debits and credits. The rural folk got familiarised with the words *jama* and *kharchu* corresponding to credit and debit. Whenever disputes arose in matters of calculating the interest, these ledgers threw a good deal of light. Defaults were settled through panchayats, as there were no codes of civil procedure of the present-day pattern.

The profession of money-lending appeared to be popular in the days before the present century, because the borrowers could obtain loans easily, without any wearisome formalities. Confidence of one party in the other was the basis for giving credit. *Kaisala* or the hand-loan, as it is called, was very popular in the rural areas of the district. These loans were discharged either in lumpsum or in instalments. Prohibitive rates of interest were charged and the rates varied from individual to individual. The charging of compound interest was the rule of the day.

Banking in the modern sense was almost unknown in the old days. In the decade 1860-1870, several prominent public men of the district met and discussed the need for regulating the methods of banking. They pooled their resources and started in July 1868 a small institution called the Chitradurga Bank to provide credit facilities to the people of the area. Due to want of statutory regulations, the Bank was not registered till 1870. In that year, Chitradurga Bank assumed a new name called the Chitradurga Savings Bank Limited, and was duly registered as per the then existing Indian Companies Act, 1866. This institution is known to be the oldest banking institution of the district. In 1913, a branch of the Bank of Mysore (now the State Bank of

Mysore) was opened in Davangere town. From then on, there was a marked development in this field and several new branches were started. A branch of the Vysya Bank, Bangalore, was opened in 1934 at Davangere and the same bank opened a branch in 1937 at Chitradurga. In the succeeding decades, the Canara Industrial and Banking Syndicate (now Syndicate Bank Ltd.) and the Canara Bank opened their branches in the district. The Bank of Maharashtra established a branch in Harihar in 1952. The Challakere branch of the Bank of Mysore Limited (now the State Bank of Mysore) was opened in 1957 and the Harihar branch in 1965.

Thus, the growth of modern banking was particulary rapid after 1926, though it is seen from the above narrative that apart from the oldest banking institution—the Chitradurga Bank—no other institution with its headquarters in the district was started. All these banks in the district catering for the needs of the borrowing public are branches of other banks having their head offices elsewhere, but these branches have played a prominent role in accelerating the economic growth and prosperity of the district. With the dawn of Independence and the implementation of the Five-Year Plans, the tempo of economic progress has quickened in the district as elsewhere in the State and the country.

Control of money-lending

The obvious dangers of borrowing money at heavy rates of interest and the consequent financial burden on the borrowers attracted the attention of public men and there were persistent efforts by legislators on the floor of the Mysore Representative Assembly and Legislative Council to put an end to this menace. Repeated demands were made to curb the undesirable tendency by necessary legislation. The Government examined the whole problem, having regard to the control measures adopted in the neighbouring provinces and came to the conclusion that a system of registration and licensing would meet the purpose. Accordingly, a bill was framed and placed before the legislature and His Highness the Maharaja of Mysore gave his assent to the bill and it became the Mysore Money-lenders Act, 1939. In conformity with the provisions of the statute, the Deputy Commissioner of Chitradurga district was appointed the statutory officer to license and regulate money-lending. The statute stipulated the rate of interests chargeable on loans, and fixed it at a maximum of 9 per cent. The Act prohibited money-lending without licence and registration. As per the 1961 census, there were 102 licensed money-lenders and pawn-brokers in the district.

The 1939 Act was replaced by the Mysore Money-lenders Act, 1961, which came into force in 1965. Money-lending throughout the State is now governed by this uniform Act. The maximum rates of interest fixed by the Government are 15 per cent on secured loans and 18 per cent on unsecured loans.

Loans and Advances

The question of increasing the food production in these days of shortfalls and occasional scarcity has received the earnest attention of the State Government. In addition to special loans for grow-more-food schemes, the traditional method of subsidising the cultivating classes as an incentive to further efforts has come to stay ; the age-old *taccavi* loans, the land improvement loans, subsidy loans for the construction of irrigation wells and such other loans have all become familiar features. The cultivating classes have to state their necessities and apply for loans and advances through the revenue authorities. The district authorities, after following the necessary rules and regulations, sanction the monetary help out of allotted funds. The *bona fides* of applicants are scrutinised by the local revenue authorities and the Deputy Commissioner of the district acts on the recommendations of his subordinate officers, in sanctioning loans.

The following table indicates the extent of financial help given to the cultivators of the district of Chitradurga from 1954 to the end of March 1965.

Sl. No.	*Year*	*Taccavi loan*	*Land Improvement loan*	*Subsidy*	*Loan for Construction of Irrigation wells*	*Fruit culture loan.*
1	2	3	4	5	6	7
		Rs.	Rs.	Rs.	Rs.	Rs.
1.	1954-55 ..	41,500	30,185	N.A.	N.A.	N.A.
2.	1955-56	37,050	24,280	21,732	N.A.	N.A.
3.	1956-57 ..	28,600	10,950	7,375	N.A.	N.A.
4.	1957-58 .	60,700	17,220	9,462	3,500	200
5.	1958-59 .	72,000	48,935	19,275	32,,775	500
6	1959-60 ..	1,33,825	50,145	10,100	22,145	150
7.	1960-61 .	3,76,025	95,859	3,350	225,725	N.A.
8.	1961-62 .	1,79,750	63,625	5,750	2,24,495	N.A.
9.	1962-63 ..	1,24,000	59,650	125	3,71,175	N.A.
10	1963-64 .	1,48,050	56,450	N.A.	5,710	N.A.
11.	1964-65 .	2,42,250	1,46,250	N.A.	N.A.	500

N.A.—Figures are not available.

General Indebtedness

A noticeable feature of the economic life of the workers, industrial and agricultural, in the district of Chitradurga is that they are generally indebted ; many live in debt and some die in debt also. To quote a line from the Royal Commission on Labour, "Among the causes responsible for the low standard of living of the workers, indebtedness must be given a high place". The Commission further remarked : "Many indeed are born in debt and it evokes both admiration and regret to find how commonly a son assumes responsibility for his father's debt, an obligation which rests on religious and social but seldom on legal sanction" *. Thus, according to the Commission, a majority of the workers in

*Report of the Royal Commission on Labour, *page* 224.

the country were in debt for the greater part of their working lives, and the people of the district of Chitradurga are no exception.

In the industrial centres of the district like Davangere, Harihar and Chitradurga, it has been estimated that not less than two-thirds of the labour population are in debt and the amount of debt commonly exceeds three months wages. A systematic inquiry is necessary to have a clear idea about the extent of indebtedness amongst the workers. Such an inquiry is difficult as it involves great labour on the part of the investigators and as the workers' hesitation to disclose their real economic position to the investigating staff would come in the way of such a study. No detailed survey has been conducted in the industrial area of the district to measure the exact indebtedness.

But, however, a socio-economic survey of a village in Harihar taluk was conducted by the Census authorities in Mysore during 1963-64 which gives a picture of the extent of indebtedness in the area. The village selected was Nandigudi on the banks of Tungabhadra and is representative of the other rural areas in the district. The survey revealed that 72.75 per cent of the people of that village were in debt. The following table indicates the amount of indebtedness :—

Income group (Per month)	*Number of households*	*Amount borrowed*	*Average amount of indebtedness*
		Rs.	Rs. p.
Below Rs. 25	2	600	600—00
Rs. 25 to 50	6	3,100	1,033—33
Rs. 51 to 75	14	3,990	363—45
Rs. 76 to 100	5	3,150	630—00
Above Rs. 100	28	21,505	1,075—25

The survey has revealed that the households in debt in the income group of less than Rs. 25 per month had to mortgage their land in order to obtain a loan. In the next group of Rs. 25 to Rs. 50, 50 per cent were indebted. The average amount outstanding per indebted family in the group was Rs. 1,033-33; 79 per cent of the families were indebted in the income group of Rs. 51 to Rs. 75. The average amount outstanding per indebted household was the lowest in this group, being Rs. 363. The comparatively low average in this group is due to the fact that it consists primarily of petty cultivators or labourers with limited means of income. All the five families coming under the income group of Rs. 76 to Rs. 100 per month were indebted and the average was Rs. 630. In the highest income group of more than Rs. 100 per month, 71 per cent were indebted. The average per indebted household was the highest in this group, mainly because, the land-owners by virtue of their credit-worthiness ventured to borrow more liberally for the purpose of effecting improvement of land, as well as for defraying the expenses required for cultivation

during the years of adverse seasonal conditions. Due to partial crop failures from 1961 to 1963, these families were obliged to borrow cash and cereals even for their normal maintenance.

Causes of Indebtedness

The causes for this heavy indebtedness are many. In many cases, the son inherits the debt of his father. But the most important cause of indebtedness is the heavy, though occasional, expenditure on marriages, festivals, funerals and anniversaries. The mobility or the migratory character of workers is also an important cause of their debt. Another cause of the evil is the want of any margin for meeting expenditure of an unforeseen character. The wage levels in the district are low, and there is hardly any scope for saving. But the low wage level cannot be said to be the only cause of indebtedness, because better-paid workers in certain factories and textile mills in the district are more indebted than the poorly-paid ones. Poverty is sometimes the cause and sometimes the effect of indebtedness and often it is both. It is true that the main cause of indebtedness is disproportionate expenditure on social ceremonies; there is a growing tendency to regard such expenditure as mere extravagance, but it has to be remembered that the worker like anybody else is a part of a social organisation and has perforce to conform to certain customary social standards, even when he is not in a position to do so. In these matters, the individual is often helpless because, in the words of the Labour Investigation Committee, " custom is not only a king but a tyrant as well ".

Facile credit has also proved to be a cause for the indebtedness of the workers in the district; the greatest drawback of the system is the ease with which they can borrow large sums, which they can seldom hope to repay. Their illiteracy makes it very difficult for them to develop any business sense and to think of the future, and their inability to make any calculations compels them to accept whatever figures of increase or decrease in indebtedness are mentioned to them by their money-lenders. The money-lenders do not usually receive the full interest regularly, so they add the arrears of interest to the sum lent, and the original loan of a small sum frequently develops, in a few years, into a large and permanent debt. In many cases, the money-lenders take from the workers and their families the major portion of their wages on pay day and the rest of their wages would be just sufficient for bare subsistence and this can particularly be noticed with regard to the workers in different factories like the textile mills at Davangere and other factories at Harihar and Chitradurga. Thus, in the industrial sector of the district's economy, we find that indebtedness is acting as a great check to the efficiency of labour. The extra effort put forth by the indebted workers merely benefits the money-lenders. Thus, the saying " the tyranny of debt degrades the employee and impairs his efficiency " may well be applied to the practical economic life of many workers of the district of Chitradurga.

Debt Redemption

With the progressive establishment of co-operatives, the extent of indebtedness has been diminishing slowly but steadily. Facilities have also been provided by some of the employers in industry to advance money from the bonuses or from the provident funds in times of emergency, the same being deducted in small instalments from the wages. Successive pieces of legislation have made usurious practices difficult and the money-lenders' activities are being regulated. The co-operative movement, the schemes of social insurance and the legislation for the protection of indebted workers—all these are going a long way in the liquidation of the debts of workers in the district. Before long, we can expect a better economic position being assured to the workers of this district and their indebtedness in coming years will not be so much as it was before.

Joint Stock Banks

The following are the places in the district of Chitradurga having banking offices (other than co-operative banks) : Chitradurga, Davangere, Harihar, Hosadurga, Holalkere, Hiriyur and Challakere. The table below gives the names of the banks having offices in each of these places.

Chitradurga District—Banking Offices (other than co-operative) **in 1965.**

Name of Place	*Name of Bank*	
1	2	
Chitradurga	State Bank of Mysore Vysya Bank Syndicate Bank Karnataka Bank	All are Branch Offices
Challakere	State Bank of Mysore	
Davangere	State Bank of Mysore Canara Bank Indian Bank Vysya Bank Central Bank of India Syndicate Bank	
Harihar	Bank of Maharashtra Karnataka Bank State Bank of Mysore	
Hosadurga	Karnataka Bank	
Holalkere	Jayalakshmi Bank	
Hiriyur	Jayalakshmi Bank	

Chitradurga Bank

As there were no banking facilities for the public of Chitradurga town, the founders of this institution started this bank with a small capital under the name of "Private Pecuniary Aid Society, Chitradurga", on 1st July 1868. Subsequently, on 13th July 1870, it was registered as "The Chitradurga Savings

Bank Limited" in conformity with the Indian Companies Act of 1866, with a capital of Rs. 20,000 consisting of 2,000 shares of Rs. 10 each. It has to be noted that this bank is one of the oldest in India. The above capital was found insufficient for purposes of banking and so sanction of the Government of Mysore was obtained to increase the capital to Rs. 50,000. The name of the bank was also changed to "The Chitradurga Bank Ltd.," as per Government direction in 1949. With the establishment of several industrial concerns, there was a great demand for additional banking facilities. Therefore, the capital was further increased by the issue of additional shares during the 1950's. When the bank was merged with the Karnataka Bank Ltd., it had a share capital of Rs. 1,22,830 and the total deposits amounted to Rs. 2,20,000.

State Bank of Mysore

The erstwhile Bank of Mysore Limited, which is now reconstituted as the State Bank of Mysore (a subsidiary of the State Bank of India), has its registered office at Bangalore. It has four branches within the confines of Chitradurga district and they are located at Chitradurga, Davangere, Challakere and Harihar. Out of these, the Davangere branch was established in 1913 and was the earliest. It was then followed by the opening of a branch at Chitradurga in 1926 and at Challakere in 1957. The latest branch to be established was at Harihar on the 6th December 1965. Merchants, industrialists and agriculturists of these and surrounding places are being greatly benefited by these branches.

The deposits and advances of these four branches of this Bank as on the 31st December 1965 are embodied in the following table :

Place	Deposits (Rs. in lakhs)	Advances (Rs. in lakhs)
1. Davangere	37.00	80 63
2. Chitradurga	25.24	33.25
3. Challakere	7.32	2.43
4 Harihar	0.65	0.50

Advances are made by the Davangere and Challakere branches against Warehousing Corporation receipts, at concessional rates of interest in order to encourage the raiyats as well as small traders. All the four branches allow advances to small-scale industries on liberalised terms including concessional rates of interest, margins and the like.

Syndicate Bank

The Canara Industrial and Banking Syndicate (now called the Syndicate Bank Ltd.) which was incorporated at Udipi in 1925 to finance cottage industries took up, after three years, commercial banking and began to expand its activities by establishing branches. As at the end of 1965, it had 204 branches of which 89

were in Mysore State. The district of Chitradurga has two branches which are situated at Davangere and Chitradurga. Besides catering for the needs of traders and industrialists, the two branches have deposit schemes to promote small savings. There is also a cumulative deposit scheme which is a monthly savings scheme. The pigmy deposit scheme, which is a daily deposit scheme, under which savings are collected at the doors of the depositors, is a speciality of this bank. The volume of annual business of the two branches of this bank in the district ranges approximately from 20 to 30 lakhs of rupees. Loans on commercial products to merchants and millers and transport contractors, and on other approved securities to the community as a whole, were granted upto Rs. 35 lakhs in Chitradurga district annually.

Canara Bank

With a view to improving the economic condition of the people, to instilling the habit of saving among them and to giving financial assistance to the businessmen to run and improve their business, a band of enthusiasts started at Mangalore in 1906 a 'nidhi' with the name "The Canara Hindu Permanent Fund Limited". In 1910, the fund was re-constituted into a regular bank and was named "The Canara Bank, Ltd.". This bank has a branch at Davangere which was opened on 25th March 1935. This branch is not merely advancing finance on all types of marketable securities but is also financing industries on a long-term basis. The deposits in the branch were to the extent of Rs. 30 lakhs in 1965 and long-term advances are given to industrial concerns, as also advances against cotton yarn and for imports of machinery.

Vysya Bank

The Vysya Bank which was established at Bangalore in 1930, has two branches in Chitradurga district, one at Davangere and the other at Chitradurga, which were opened on 11th January 1934 and 14th February 1937, respectively. Apart from providing general banking facilities, the object of the bank is also to advance finance to trade and commerce. The branches have also both the cumulative deposit and savings bank deposit schemes. This is one of the important scheduled banks in the State, affording financial accommodation to some extent for the growth of industries and commerce in the district.

Bank of Maharashtra

The Bank of Maharashtra is a scheduled bank established on the 16th September 1935 with its head office at Poona. In December 1965, it had a net-work of 100 branches and its total deposits exceeded Rs. 43 crores. This bank opened its branch at Harihar on the 26th December 1952. At Harihar, the bank has been playing a notable role in financing industrial enterprises and encouraging small engineering concerns. The bank has also considerably financed the expansion of the textile industry at Tolahunase in the Chitradurga district as also the Mysore Kirloskar Ltd., at Harihar.

Central Bank of India

The Central Bank of India which was established in 1911 at Bombay has got a branch at Davangere. This bank is one of the largest Indian joint stock banks. Davangere, which is one of the oldest industrial and business centres of the old Mysore State, attracted the attention of this bank, and the branch established there is now catering for the financial needs of the people of the place.

Indian Bank

The Indian Bank which was incorporated in the year 1907 at Madras has opened a branch at Davangere. This bank is one of the important joint-stock banks and is rendering financial help for the economic betterment of the Davangere taluk in particular and the district in general.

Karnataka Bank

The Karnataka Bank, Ltd., was incorporated in the late thirties in Mangalore, South Kanara, and has three branches in the district at Chitradurga, Harihar and Hosadurga. This bank has 35 branches all over Karnataka. At the end of 1965-66, the bank had a total deposit of Rs. 4.80 crores and earned a profit of Rs. 2.50 lakhs. In the district, the branches are promoting trade and commerce, by advancing timely financial help. The Chitradurga Bank was recently merged with this bank.

Jayalakshmi Bank

The Jayalakshmi Bank Ltd., was incorporated as a scheduled bank with its registered office at Mangalore, South Kanara. It has two branches in the district, one at Holalkere and another at Hiriyur. The Holalkere branch commenced banking business from the 28th October 1963 and the Hiriyur branch on 17th May 1965 The branches transact all types of banking business, including deposits and current acounts, and advance loans to merchants on liberal terms. Documentary and other bills are also discounted and purchased at the branches.

Co-operative Banks

The District Co-operative Central Bank Ltd., Chitradurga is the central financing agency of the district and was established on 25th January 1955. The membership of this bank at the end of 1965 included 544 primary societies and also the State Government, with a subscribed share capital of Rs. 21,44,900. The total amount of credit facilities provided by this bank during 1965 was Rs. 90,92,414. During 1965, the bank had made a net profit of Rs. 1,12,754.

The bank has tapped substantial deposits from its members. As at the end of 1965, the current deposits stood at Rs. 39.66 lakhs, savings amounted to Rs. 1,16,616, fixed deposits amounted to Rs. 5,01.037 and other kinds of deposits stood at Rs. 20,15,561. Thus, the bank has been developing on sound lines.

There are five urban co-operative banks in the district and they are :—

(i) The Chitradurga Town Co-operative Bank Ltd., Chitradurga.
(ii) Merchants' Co-operative Bank Ltd., Chitradurga.
(iii) Kanyakaparameshwari Co-operative Bank Ltd., Chitradurga.
(iv) Jagalur Town Co-operative Bank Ltd, Jagalur.
(v) Harihar Town Co-operative Bank Ltd, Harihar.

These banks are not issuing loans to the agriculturists but only to non-agriculturist classes like merchants and artisans. Special mention may be made here regarding the Chitradurga Town Co-operative Bank, Ltd., which has taken up stores activity like sales of manures, implements, cement, iron, paper, etc., along with banking activity. The bank has a Power Printing Press, and has been taking up printing works, and has invested about Rs. 36,700 for it. The bank had, at the end of 1965, 1,529 members with a share capital of Rs. 97,730, reserve fund of Rs. 97,047, other reserves of Rs. 61,468, and deposits of Rs. 3,85,528. The loans outstanding on members amounted to Rs. 4,00,482. The net profit earned during the year 1964-65 was Rs. 16,361.

Co-operative Societies

The agricultural co-operative credit societies form the bulk of the co-operative credit organisation of the district. They generally have one village as their area of operation but occasionally neighbouring villages are also clubbed together in a single society. Providing of short-term loans to their members for productive purposes is their main function. Loans are advanced mostly on the personal security of the borrower supplemented by the guarantee of two approved sureties. These sureties are checked up by the local revenue authorities.

In December 1965, there were 390 agricultural credit societies in the district, with a total membership of 51,000. The share capital, including the Government share, was Rs. 17.88 lakhs and the deposits in the various societies amounted to Rs. 1.34 lakhs. Loans amounting to Rs. 24.77 lakhs were issued to various members.

The non-agricultural credit societies are in the nature of thrift societies and save their members from borrowing from private money-lenders. The total number of these societies as at the end of 1965 was 56. The number of members during 1965 was 12,000. Total deposits during the year were of the order of Rs. 30.31 lakhs. During 1965, they issued loans to members to the tune of Rs. 5,20,600. The net profit during the year was Rs. 1,50,000.

Apart from the societies mentioned above, there were at the end of 1965, 19 house-building societies, 17 farming societies, and 24 consumers' co-operative societies. The house-building societies

in the district had 5,919 members on their rolls with a paid-up share-capital of Rs. 1.87 lakhs. They had built up reserves to the tune of Rs. 0.64 lakh. Their borrowings as at the end of the said year stood at Rs. 28.48 lakhs. The loans outstanding amounted to Rs. 29.84 lakhs of which Rs. 2.35 lakhs remained overdue. During 1965, 12 houses were constructed bringing the total number of houses constructed to 600.

The farming societies functioning in the district had at the end of 1965, 1,059 members with a paid-up share capital of Rs. 0.71 lakh. They owned 7,235 acres of land and produced Rs. 1.46 lakhs worth of foodgrains.

The total membership of the consumers' co-operative societies in the district stood during 1965 at 6,463. They had a share capital of Rs. 0.92 lakh and borrowed Rs. 0.64 lakh. They purchased goods to the tune of Rs. 24,86,000 and effected sales to the tune of Rs. 7.75 lakhs and earned a gross profit of Rs. 0.15 lakh.

All the societies mentioned above are striving their utmost to create a healthy and sound financial atmosphere for developmental activity. Under the successive Five-Year Plans, the activities of these institutions have been spreading all over the area. It is hoped that in the years to come, these co-operative institutions will play an increasingly important part in providing remedies for the economic ills of the district.

Life Insurance

Prior to the nationalisation of life insurance companies, there were no insurance offices as such in the district. Agents of private insurance companies and helpers of the Mysore Government Insurance Department were stationed in several places in the dsitrict.

The Life Insurance Corporation's branch office at Davangere was opened on 1st September 1956. The business was confined in the initial stages to the taluk headquarters and, gradually efforts were made to spread the insurance business into the interior places of the district. The business done in the district during 1957 was slightly below Rs. one crore, but during 1964-65, the Corporation secured business of well over one and a half crores of rupees in the district. There are eleven field officers working in the district with a Branch Manager at Davangere and they are engaged in developing the insurance business, especially in the rural parts.

There is no stock-exchange in the district.

State aid to industrial development

The Government of Mysore, in their declaration of industrial policy, have made it clear that they would make all efforts to assist the growth of private industrial enterprises. Even as a princely

State, Mysore was noted as a pioneer in the field of industrial expansion. Recently, the Government have established a Financial Corporation to advance loans and provide other assistance in furthering industrial activities. Prior to the starting of this autonomous corporate body, the Mysore State Aid to Industries Act, was promulgated as Act No. XX of 1951, with a view to helping industrial entrepreneurs. Many have benefited from the operative clauses of this statute, which, while sustaining the starting and growth of industries, provides timely financial help to the small, medium and big industries. The Act has 24 clauses mainly detailing the mode and method of advancing financial help for industrial growth. It was made applicable to the district of Chitradurga also. The Director of Industries and Commerce in Mysore, Bangalore, is the statutory authority to sanction advances to the applicants. There is a Board of Industries consisting of ten members with a Chairman appointed by the Government. This Board is invested with powers to deal with applications for the grant of State aid. Loans, guarantee of cash credit, overdraft or a fixed advance through a recognised bank are some of the forms of assistance. There is also a statutory provision for paying subsidy in the case of cottage industries. All applications for loans are received by the Director of Industries who then submits them for scrutiny to the Board. If the extent of the aid applied for exceeds Rs. 50,000, the Director of Industries has to publish a notice in the prescribed manner calling upon any person, who objects to the grant, to state his objections.

Several industries in the district have obtained financial assistance for implementation of their developmental schemes. In addition to the loans granted under the Mysore State Aid to Industries Act, liberal sums have been canalised through other agencies also. The Mysore State Financial Corporation sanctioned a sum of Rs. 10 lakhs as security loan and a further sum of Rs. one lakh on the strength of Government guarantee to the cotton textile industry in the district.

Under the State Aid to Industries Act, six industries, *viz.*, engineering, wood works, tobacco-curing factories, textiles, cotton ginning and utensils-manufacturing units have received in all Rs. 3,44,000 upto 1965-66.

A total financial assistance of Rs. 21,40,359 had been sanctioned by the Mysore Central Co-operative Rural Industrial Financing Bank Ltd., under various categories like security loan, liberalised small-scale industries loan programme and the like. From its own funds also, the Mysore Central Co-operative Rural Industrial Financing Bank, Ltd., had advanced a sum of Rs. 16,12,825 as security loans.

In order to assist poor artisans, who do not have any financial backing or security, the State Government have sponsored a

security loan scheme under the rural industrialisation programme. A maximum loan of Rs. 300 to an individual artisan is given on personal surety. Up to 1965-66 the State Government had advanced loans of Rs. 72,323 to artisans in the district through the Mysore Central Co-operative Rural Industrial Financing Bank, Ltd.

Machinery worth about Rs. 21.27 lakhs has been supplied to 114 industrial units on hire-purchase basis.

Large amounts running to several lakhs of rupees had been given in the past to major textile industries like the Ganeshar Textile Mills, Davangere and Shanker Textiles, Davangere, for purposes of expansion as follows :—

Ganeshar Textiles—Rs. 6,50,000 on 15th September 1946 and again a sum of Rs. 13,50,000 on 13th January 1948. Up to 1965, about rupees ten lakhs had been recovered with an interest of five per cent.

Shanker Textiles—Rs. ten lakhs on 14th October 1948. The sum was fully recovered.

Other textile establishments have received small sums ranging from Rs. 10,000 to Rs. 20,000.

Coinage system

Under the Indian coinage system, beginning from the one rupee coin down to the coins of smaller denominations, called subsidiary coins which are token coins and whose face value is higher than their intrinsic value, the district has all the coins common to the country. Rupee and half-rupee coins are unlimited legal tender, whereas the subsidiary coins are legal tender upto Rs. 10 only. Decimal coinage has been acclaimed all over the world as the simplest form of coinage, making calculations quicker and easy. In the modern complicated system of trade and commerce, easy conversion of money is most essential, and a decimal system, which works in multiples of ten makes the task of conversion easier. From 1st April 1957, India changed over to the decimal coinage system and the district of Chitradurga also has had the beneficial impact of this change. To give effect to this change, an amendment to the Indian Coinage Act of 1906 was passed by Parliament in August 1955. Under the Amendment Act of 1955, it was declared that the Indian rupee would continue to be the standard coin but it would be divided into 100 paise, the half-rupee and the quarter-rupee being equivalent to 50 and 25 paise respectively. Since 1st April 1957, ten, five, three, two and one paise coins have been issued all over India and they are in circulation in the district.

PART B—TRADE AND COMMERCE

Course of trade

The district of Chitradurga is a land-locked area. It is contiguous with the Bellary and Dharwar districts in the north

and Tumkur and Shimoga districts in the south and west, and from time immemorial, the course of trade had confined itself to these areas. One significant feature of the district is its present-day net-work of roads, which has been responsible for the development of trade with other parts of the country. There is no reliable data to define the manner in which old-time trade was carried on before the advent of railway communications.

Impediments to growth of trade

Many factors seem to have impeded the growth of trade in the old days. The recurring feuds between ruling dynastics and the frequent large-scale military raids during the time of the Hoysala and Vijayanagar kingships were certainly of no help for the normal flow of trade. The absence of navigable rivers in the area was also a factor responsible for an adverse influence on the growth of external trade.

In those days of localised wants, self-sufficiency was an easy matter. The population produced what it needed for its own requirements and any surplus, which was really little, was sent to places nearby. Trade channels were not organised. Absence of timely monsoons created immediate distress, as foodgrains could not be moved with any degree of expedition. Chitradurga shared in many respects the disadvantages of the other adjoining areas in regard to trade development, because of the difficulties of transport. Except the common bullock cart, which was capable of carrying only small loads, there was no other means of quick transport. Road communications were pitifully absent and some of the so-called highways built during the old days were unfit for vehicular traffic. The cart tracks which traversed from village to village were useless during the monsoon months. In spite of the fact that single dynasties held sway for long periods over this area, the variations in the levy of customs and in the licensing systems prevented the easy flow of goods from one place to the other. In between the decline of one rule and the emergence of the other, the standards of currency and weights and measures varied due to the unsettled nature of Governments. All these acted as a check to the growth of trade, before the advent of a settled Government in the nineteenth century.

As has been noted by travellers of those days and particularly by Abbe Dubois, a Christian missionary, who wandered from place to place, the trade of the district before the introduction of the roads and railways must have depended upon the primitive country carts. Pack animals were also employed to carry goods from place to place. It was not possible under these circumstances to carry a large bulk from one place to another. The result was that the trade was restricted to articles of high value.

The Vijayanagar rulers encouraged foreign merchants to visit their domain and to sell their wares. These merchants took

advantage of this opportunity and settled in various parts of the dominions. These foreigners had their own trade headquarters and established branch offices in various parts of the dominions and carried on trade through authorised trade representatives. The trade carried on by these people was not restricted to imports. They also helped the export trade of the country.

In the days of Haidar Ali and Tipu Sultan, a new order emerged through the commercial regulations which controlled the various trade channels of the district. A strict ban was imposed on commercial intercourse with Europeans, in the interest of internal security. Exports were totally prohibited because they resulted in a rise of local prices and imports were not encouraged because they impoverished the growers. A Board of nine Commissioners of Trade was established regulating exports and imports. State monopoly was introduced in the trade of certain commodities. The sovereign was the chief merchant who controlled the whole trade. There was no incentive for profits and private enterprise had a serious setback.

New phase

The course of trade after the reign of Tipu showed no improvement as the customs system then existing was very oppressive. In line with the rest of the State, the district of Chitradurga had many *Kattes* or toll gates and goods passing through them were subjected to the payment of various levies like the *Sthaladaya, Margadaya* and *Mamuladaya*. The toll gates were manned by farmers, who, after paying some rent to Government, acquired the sole right of collecting customs duties. Some privileged people were exempted from the payment of tolls and the whims and caprices of the Government of those days created a great confusion in the minds of the traders. As a result of all these burdensome measures, the entire trade was monopolised by the toll-gate contractors or their subordinates who stood in the way of easy flow of normal trade. A few traders who had great influence with the sovereign had earned a monopoly in trading and this had also a deleterious effect. All these trends persisted upto the time of the establishment of the British Commission in 1831. The emergence of order out of chaos beginning from that year saw a new phase in the development of orderly trade and a Commission was set up to suggest ways and means to develop the trade of the State. The Commission immediately applied their mind to the task of resuscitating the fallen trade and the removal of many abuses prevailing in the old system. As a result of quick reforms, all unnecessary imposts were removed, and instead, octroi duties were introduced to regulate the flow of trade between the State and the neighbouring areas. In the days of the British Commission, the means of communications were improved to a large extent. Metalled roads were laid from the headquarters of the district to Bangalore and roads were extended to the frontiers giving an outlet to the road borne traffic of the State. The introduction

of the British Indian currency also tended to facilitate the development of trade. The railway line from Bangalore to Harihar marked yet another improvement in the means of communication. With these rapid developments in the communications, large quantities of raw cotton came to Davangere for ginning purposes. There was also a perceptible vigour in the matter of export and import trade of the district.

Imports and Exports

The chief places of business in the district are Davangere, Harihar, Hiriyur, Molakalmuru and Chitradurga. Davangere which is on the Bangalore-Harihar-Hubli railway route has grown considerably and is now an important centre known for its trade in cotton, groundnut, jowar, oil and woollen blankets. Molakalmuru is the chief centre for silk fabrics. The Molakalmuru silk fabrics are in great demand, particularly the upper cloth worn by men and women's cloths like khanas. Chitradurga town is known for its trade in grains and cotton. Harihar and Hiriyur have also developed into important trade centres.

The items of export from the district in normal times are ragi, jowar, cotton, oilseeds and rice. With the advent of lorry traffic, the trade picture of the district of Chitradurga has undergone a thorough change. Since the arterial highway between Bangalore and Bombay runs through the district, a large number of laden lorries can be seen constantly going across the district from the borders of the Hiriyur taluk to the banks of the Tungabhadra at Harihar. The import and export trade of Davangere largely makes use of lorry transport, but the railways also carry a considerable portion.

In any description of the trade pattern of the district, the mention of Davangere is inevitable. The town is situated about 40 miles to the north-west of the district headquarters town of Chitradurga. Trade relations are maintained, among other places, with Walajapet in North Arcot district of the Madras State and with the arecanut growing areas of Sagar and Hosanagar in the malnad areas of the Mysore State. The arecanut grown in the malnad goes through Davangere to Walajapet and other places and goods from the neighbouring State of Madras are largely imported into this town via Jalarpet. Foreign goods find their way to Davangere largely through the Madras harbour. The large volume of inward and outward trade at Davangere compares favourably with bigger places like Bangalore and Bellary.

Regulated Markets

The Government of Mysore had taken steps in the direction of marketing much before the advent of the Five-Year Plans and had enacted the Mysore Agricultural Produce Markets Act of 1939 with a view to ensuring a fair price to the agriculturists. Under this Act, the Government established a regulated market at Davangere in 1949, but the actual working of this market began at a much later

date. After the establishment of the regulated market at Davangere, five more markets were established at Chitradurga in 1951, Challakere in 1957, Hiriyur and Hosadurga in 1959 and Harihar in 1961. During 1965, there were six regulated markets in the district. The main object of establishing these markets is to ensure to the agriculturists a better price, fair weighments and relief from collection of illegal fees.

Agricultural Produce Market Committee, Davangere

The Agricultural Produce Market Committee, Davangere, is the oldest in the district. Davangere occupies a very important place in the trade of the district and the regulated market at this place is mainly controlling the marketing of groundnut, cotton, jowar, castor, pulses and chillies. This being a big market, there were 200 traders, 20 commission agents, 154 *hamals* and 105 carts as on 31st March, 1965. On an average, the following arrivals are expected in the market annually, but these figures are subject to variations on account of seasonal conditions.

1.	Cotton	..	2,00,000 quintals.
2.	Groundnut	.	3,00,000 quintals.
3.	Jowar	.	1,00,000 quintals.

The market yard covers an area of 222 acres and 39 guntas of land. About 50 acres of land were converced into 190 sites and sold to the market functionaries at an upset price. Most of them have already built their godowns. In 1960, 7 acres and 19 guntas of land were sold to the Central Warehousing Corporation for the construction of a warehouse.

A statement showing comparative statistics in respect of arrivals of agricultural commodities at the Davangere market for the years from 1960-61 to 1964-65 is given below :—

Name of the Commodity (regulated)		1960-61	1961-62	1962-63	1963-64	1964-65
				In quintals		
Groundnut	.	2,79,196	2,54,191	3,79,031	3,29,552	2,83,850
Castor		3,563	4,191	5,719	12,056	6,209
Cotton	.	2,90,380	92,733	35,559	2,29,988	1,01,371
Ragi		5,415	62,643	40,723	42,035	58,506
Jowar	.	71,615	05,609	49,448	1,49,835	1,14,742
Navane	.	3,069	3.524	2,500	2,731	3,849
Niger	.	1.315	1,428	1.230	1,797	2,652
Coriander	..	2,152	1,967	2,331	3,973	2,584
Horse gram	..	2.737	6,198	7,613	5,850	7,790
Green gram	..	1,720	2,841	2.170	3.406	2,918
Black gram	..	534	476	1,363	1,349	1,487
Bengal gram		4,092	2,698	4,033	10.096	9,217
Tur	..	2,238	2,523	1,549	9,336	13,405
Sesamum	..	2,258	2.609	5,128	5,805	4,253
Chillies	..	9,005	9,951	7,093	7,712	8,458
Jaggery		37,752	..	30,609	40,931	73,975

Agricultural Produce Market Committee, Chitradurga

The Agricultural Produce Market Committee, Chitradurga, which was established in 1951, is rendering useful service to the producers-sellers of this place. This market was also established under the Mysore Agricultural Produce Market Act of 1939. The entire area of the market is fenced in with barbed wire and as many as 79 godown sites have been formed. The sites have been allotted at an upset price to the licensees for the construction of godowns and more than 45 of them have already constructed godowns.

Cotton is the most important commodity having a marketable surplus of about 12,000 to 18,000 bales (one bale=392 lbs) in the district. Next in importance is groundnut. On an average, more than 80,000 bags of groundnut are sold in the market in a year. Jowar, tamarind, black gram, sesamum and millets are other important commodities marketed. There were in March 1965, 52 traders, 32 commission agents, 18 hamals, 25 weighmen, 18 cartmen and 7 lorries under this market.

Important arrivals of agricultural commodities in the market for the years from 1960-61 to 1964-65 are given in the following statement.

Name of the Commodity (Regulated)		1960-61	1961-62	1962-63	1963-64	1964-65
				(In quintals)		
Groundnut	..	3,822	18,633	19,596	11,334	7,657
Castor	..	1,561	..	041	2,960	1,127
Cotton	..	4,26,177	42,677	85,787	1,59,348	88,240
Tamarind	..	2,581	6,517	..	1,770	1,891
Ragi	..	10,997	12,176	12,774	17,622	12,928
Jowar	..	17,115	..	..	26,043	27,293
Navane	..	24,461	2,892	4,591	5,151	2,844
Horse gram	..	517	1,749	1,022	458	1,137
Green gram	..	279	1,953	766	..	147
Black gram	..	5,855	5,797	3,668	1,224	510
Bengal gram	..	1,163	1,442	1,394	6,691	5,270
Sajje	..	1,566	..	..	..	3,760
Onion	..	..	..	..	7,632	9,034
Tur	..	1,583	4,174	1,290	1,679	..
Sesamum	..	2,657	..	9,641	6,901	3,393
Bajra	..	..	1,840	5,732	2,545	3,760
Arecanut	..	..	..	10,050	..	..
Chillies	..	..	..	..	1,278	1,310
Jaggery	..	..	..	..	16,590	46,615

The market committee is making every effort to see that trading is so carried on as to assure fair prices to the growers.

Agricultural Produce Market Committee, Challakere

The Agricultural Produce Market Committee, Challakere, was established in 1957. An area of 59 acres of land was sanctioned by the Government for the formation of the market yard and the work in connection with it was in progress. The most prominent of the commodities handled in this market are pulses, groundnut,

paddy, ragi, jowar, onion and tamarind. In this market, as on 31st March 1965, there were 39 traders, 14 commission agents, 30 weighmen, 22 hamals and 8 cartmen.

The arrivals of several agricultural commodities in the market from 1960-61 to 1964-65 are shown below :—

Name of the commodity (Regulated)		1960–61	1961–62	1962–63	1963–64	1964–65
				(In quintals)		
Jaggery	..	27,483	16,790	14,017	18,307	28,900
Groundnut	..	44,375	15,012	..	30,632	60,788
Til	..	683	1,408	..	3,413	1,607
Castor	.	554	498	5,375	8,726	4,451
Tamarind	..	3,965	5,327	6,328	14,059	7,385
Ragi	..	6,085	13,949	9,878	16,944	25,961
Jowar	..	15,398	15,763	22,415	38,733	25,966
Navane	..	278	270	..	..	1,558
Horsegram	..	29	805	8,549	16,517	15,376
Honge seed	.	238	654	1,388	352	856
Paddy	..	53,895	44,587	67,596	1,25,285	1,10,897
Onions	..	67,908	..	..	64,403	70,211
Sajje	..	1,052	.	..	2,437	3,759
Tur	.	3,380	5,176	2,151	1,422	9,047
Coconut (Numbers)			8,95,000	11,70,300	10,46,000	8,08,510
Chillies	..	..	8,589	2,924	3,739	5,005

Agricultural Produce Market Committee, Hosadurga

Though the Agricultural Produce Market, Hosadurga, was established in 1959, the market committee started functioning on 29th May 1961. The important commodities handled in this market are coconuts, groundnut, ragi, til seeds, castor and chillies. This is only a small market having only five or six traders.

The statement showing the arrivals of several agricultural commodities in the Hosadurga market for the year 1964-65 is as under :—

	Commodity		*Arrivals (in quintals)*
1.	Ragi	..	1,212
2.	Jowar	..	213
3.	Horsegram	..	193
4.	Coconuts	..	2,64,000 (numbers)
5.	Castor seed	..	960
6.	Til seed	..	59
7.	Coriander	..	306
8	Chillies	..	376

Agricultural Produce Market Committee, Harihar

The Government of Mysore established the Regulated Market at Harihar in 1961 and the first market committee was constituted in February, 1962.

Jowar, ragi, navane, paddy, sajje, jaggery, rice, horsegram, cotton, chillies and groundnut have been brought under regulation in this market. During the year 1964-65, there were 21 traders, 4 weighmen and 9 hamals in this market.

The statement given below indicates the arrivals of important agricultural commodities in the market for the years 1963-64 and 1964-65 :—

Commodity		1963-64	1964-65
		(In quintals)	
1. Jowar	..	28,126	25,771
2. Rice	..	9,912	10,692
3. Ragi	..	481	3,630
4. Paddy	..	4,300	3,608
5. Jaggery	..	2,034	2,096

Agricultural Produce Market Committee, Hiriyur

The Hiriyur Regulated Market was established in 1959 for regularising the sale of the following agricultural commodities and actually started functioning from 1st December 1960.

1. Paddy	8. Niger
2. Ragi	9. Safflower
3. Chillies	10. Tobacco
4. Castor	11. Hongo seed
5. Jaggery	12. Arecanut
6. Horsegram	13. Soapnut
7. Groundnut	14. Tamarind

In this market, 37 traders, 17 weighmen, 34 hamals and two cartmen were functioning in the year 1964-65.

The important arrivals of agricultural commodities in the market during 1964-65 were as under :—

Commodity		(In quintals)
Paddy	..	25,576
Ragi	..	6,245
Groundnut	..	37,095
Jaggery	..	11,506
Coconut	..	2,28,900 (Nos.)

Warehouses

With the development of trade in the district, the necessity for establishing warehouses for scientific storage of foodgrains, for their protection against pests and consequent loss and for obtaining fair prices to growers was keenly felt. The Central Government's promulgation of a law called the Agricultural Produce (Development of Warehouses) Corporation Act, 1956 (Act XXVIII), resulted in the starting of a warehousing corporation in every State. In Mysore State also, a State Warehousing Corporation was established to afford storage facilities for foodgrains in principal markets. Private traders, agriculturists and co-operative institutions are allowed access to these warehouses. At present, there are three warehouses functioning in the district of Chitradurga. Two warehouses functioning at Chitradurga and Challakere were

established by the State Warehousing Corporation and the one at Davangere was established by the Central Warehousing Corporation. The Central Warehousing Corporation purchased land in the Regulated Market yard at Davangere and constructed the warehouse at a cost of about three lakhs of rupees.

Wholesale Trade

Wholesale business in the district is confined to foodgrains and consumer goods in the same way as in the other parts of the State. There are two distinct categories of wholesale business, one confined to grains which are stocked in *mandies* and the other being the goods market where big business is transacted either by local merchants or by branches of big companies established in other centres. The consumer goods are handled wholesale through authorised representatives who go from place to place to book orders Whenever goods are received they are stored in godowns for canalisation to the retail business. Big firms handling tea, vanaspati and cigarettes have established branch depots in places like Davangere and Chitradurga, manned by representatives who move about from place to place in order to assess the requirements of trade and to supply goods.

From time immemorial, wholesale business in foodgrains, spices and condiments is confined to fixed localities where wholesalers have their *mandies* for the transaction of business. In Davangere and Chitradurga, there are the usual areas with traditional names like Doddapet, Chikkapet, Santhepet, Laxmi Bazaar, Tambak Road and Mandi Road where rows of godowns have been constructed to store goods. The buyers from these wholesale bazaars know where to get their supply and at what time, without much inconvenience. Wholesale business was usually confined in the towns and cities to the Doddapet region, the Kannada word " Dodda " meaning' big '. The Chikkapet or the little bazaar is the place where retail transactions were conducted. Of course, the course of modern trade is such that these old distinctions are fast disappearing.

In the wholesale markets, proprietary interests transacting business have their own methods of importation from outside or purchase from the producers. These are based on tradition and have not changed much in spite of modern business ideas.

Railway transport

Davangere, Harihar and Chitradurga are the three pivotal trade centres and through these centres, much of the wholesale business in cotton, *thangadi* bark, grains and pulses, oil cakes and the like is transacted. It has not been possible to determine the extent of the total inward and outward movements since most of the imports and exports are carried through lorries. Having regard to this deficiency, an attempt has been made here to assess the inward and outward movements through the three railway stations

at Harihar, Davangere and Chitradurga. The commercial branch of the Southern Railway Divisional Office at Mysore has prepared a three-month period assessment, and the particulars have been given in the following three tables. The tables give an account of the actual imports and exports through railway goods yards in Harihar, Davangere and Chitradurga for three months beginning from September 1965.

HARIHAR RAILWAY STATION

Commodity	INWARDS (Weight in Quintals).		
	September 1965	*October* 1965	*November* 1965
Iron	3,249	2,216	1,338
Cement	2,036	2,085	377
Kerosene Oil	330	182	218
Beedi leaves	156	242	97
Salt	190	130	..
Grains and Pulses	424	..	223
Manure	..	..	545
Tiles	192	..	..
Aluminium	..	..	400
Bentomite	284	..	..
Yellow earth	..	188	..
Sillicon	..	308	..
M. S. Rods	..	154	473
Fire Clay	..	..	718
Machinery	..	..	114
	OUTWARDS		
Machinery	1,141	931	1,421
Sand	2,638	2,020	2,443
Iron Dust	1,712	1,369	666
Bark (Thangadi)	60	..	..
Bones	80	80	.
Agricultural implements	570	389	573
Tins	35	..	..
Seeds	..	5,032	1,647
Bamboo chips	..	884	1,285
Grains and Pulses	..	..	1,256
Aluminium	..	..	200

DAVANGERE RAILWAY STATION

Commodity	INWARDS (Weight in Quintals)		
	September 1965	*October* 1965	*November* 1965
Grains and Pulses	15,371	13,269	30,812
Coal	2,973	10,902	12,083
Oil	3,513	1,721	3,160
Oil Cake	661	2,410	20,415
Cement	3,468	3,071	3,885

Commodity	OUTWARDS (Weight in Quintals)		
	September 1965	*October* 1965	*November* 1965
Grains and Pulses ..	417	1,070	1,384
Oil Cake	19,398	39,530	42,330
Oil Seeds	1,340	11,180	4,793
Cotton	163	170	350
Husk	2,714	3,558	2,652
Cotton Lint ..	530	1,032	1,082
Pig Manure	..	..	160
Puri (Husked rice) ..	333	203	334
Tins	129	35	140
Jaggery	..	..	125
Soap	138	..	250
Stores	..	..	752
Other Goods	747	903	1,074

CHITRADURGA RAILWAY STATION

Commodity	INWARDS (Weight in Quintals)		
	September 1965	*October* 1965	*November* 1965
G. I. Sheets	209	..	..
Tur Dhal	588	447	1,561
Asphalt	262	446	845
Kerosene Oil	545	884	3,262
Salt	539	1,145	1,384
Jowar	1,865	..	..
Wheat	537	5,967	..
Cement	1,786	1,895	2,238
	OUTWARDS		
Til Seeds	521	281	..
Thangadi Bark ..	1,136	1,451	1,295
Barrels	455	..	140
Oil Cake	1,248	1,238	817
Cotton (Raw)	..	599	..
Cotton Seeds	..	..	876

Retail Trade

The retail trade is not confined to any particular town. It is spread all over the district. At one time Chitradurga, Davangere, Harihar, Jagalur, Hiriyur, Holalkere, Hosadurga and Molakalmuru were the principal retail centres. But with the growth of population and rapid urbanisation, even villages have retail shops selling a variety of commodities. Consumer goods for the retail trade are obtained either through local wholesaler or from Bangalore. According to the 1961 census there were in all 3,610 shops both in rural and urban areas doing retail business.

The retail shops in the important towns of the district are usually well-stocked and there is no dearth of goods. The rapid growth in the means of communication and the changed outlook in methods of trade have resulted in a large retail trade.

Retail shops have increased enormously in number since World War II; the reason for this is obvious. The margin of profit to the retailer is now much wider than it was before 1940, in spite of increased cost of living. The habits of the people have been changing and what were once considered avoidable luxuries are now essential necessities. Every nook and corner of the urban areas of the district has these shops transacting all kinds of business. The growth of extensions in towns like Davangere and Chitradurga has also been responsible for the increase in the number of retail shops.

Fairs and Shandies

The fairs and *melas*, locally called as *jatras*, serve a useful part in canalising trade. These *jatras* attract a good number of people from the neighbourhood. More often than not, these fairs are held in important centres of pilgrimage and the volume of business, both retail and wholesale, transacted at these fairs is considerable.

The most important *jatra* is the Davangere Duggamma Jatra at which more than 60,000 people congregate. This *jatra* is held once in two years in the month of *Phalguna*. A similar fair is held in the month of *Magha* at Avaragola in Davangere taluk. At Harihar, the festival of Sangameshwara held in *Phalguna* attracts a large number of people and a cattle show is also held. At Bommaghatta in Molakalmuru taluk, a car festival is celebrated in honour of Ramadevaru in the month of *Phalguna*. The Maremma's *jatra* held in the month of *Bhadrapada* at Gourasamudra in Challakere taluk is also quite famous. A large volume of business is transacted at all these *jatras*.

Weekly fairs or *shandies* known as *santhes* are held in many places in the district. The largest weekly fair in the district is held at Challakere where a large volume of business is transacted. The weekly fairs at Chitradurga, Davangere and Holalkere are also fairly well attended. *Santhes* are also held at Hosadurga, Nayakanahatti, Aimangala, Devasamudra, Hireguntanur, Jagalur and Budihal.

Marketing Co-operatives

As on 30th June 1965, there were 11 marketing societies in this district. The paid-up share capital of these marketing societies was Rs. 16.69 lakhs and the reserve and other funds were of the order of Rs. 5.65 lakhs. During 1965, these societies earned a profit of Rs. 1.30 lakhs. Sufficient financial aid—to the tune of Rs. 14.63 lakhs—was given by the Government to these societies for various purposes like the construction of godowns, share capital and managerial cost.

Special mention should be made of the Agricultural, Industrial and Commercial Co-operative Society at Davangere which was formed for the purpose of supplying agricultural requirements to the raiyats and for marketing their produce, as also to stock manure and promote mining activity in the district.

Fair Price Shops

Regulated distribution of foodgrains both by wholesale and retail in the district is being done through co-operative societies, municipal and panchayat grain depots. As on 1st January 1966, there were 14 wholesale and 438 co-operative, village panchayat and municipal depots functioning as fair price shops in the district. Davangere with a large population is having informal rationing from 1st April 1965. The food supply in city is being managed by three wholesale societies and 33 retail co-operative societies with an average assignment of ration cards from 500 to 700 for every society. The second big town in the district is Chitradurga and it has three wholesale and 16 retail societies. Except for Davangere, food-grains for all the other places are being released on an *ad hoc* basis at least once in a fortnight. The average issue of foodgrains and sugar for the district per month was as follows :—

	Rice	*Wheat*	*Jowar*	*Sugar*
		(In quintals)		
Davangere city ..	2,500	2,000	2,000	720
For other taluks ..	2,000	3,000	2,000	1,610

Trade Association

The only trade association in the district of Chitradurga is the Davangere Trades Association. This association was started at Davangere on 31st January 1939 and registered under the Mysore Societies Regulation No. III of 1904. At the end of 1965, there were 214 members. This association which is housed in its own building is striving to bring about closer co-operation amongst the members of trade and industry. Among the other important functions of the association may be mentioned, the laying down of a common policy, devising of ways and means of further promotion of their business and amicable settlement of disputes among the merchants.

Weights and Measures

The weights in use in the district prior to the introduction of the metric system were the standard maund of 40 seers, the seer of 24 tolas and the five-seer weight which was familiarly called as *pancheru* or *viss*. Fluids were either measured or weighed according to local practices. Ghee and butter were weighed employing the *viss* as the unit weight and oils were measured employing the standard seer as the unit. Petrol and diesel oil were sold to customers using the gallon as the unit. With the introduction of the metric system, they are now sold in litres. With the emergence of the decimal coinage system, it was found desirable to introduce the metric system of weights and measures also. The metric system of weights and measures was introduced in the district with effect from 1st June, 1962. All transactions in trade are being done through the metric system. A good deal of propaganda has been done to familiarise the people with the new system. Handbills and brochures have been freely distributed describing the beneficent effects of the metric system.

CHAPTER VII

COMMUNICATIONS

Old time Routes

THE economic development of a region depends on road communications to a large extent and roads have played an important part in the progress of the Chitradurga district also. It is gathered on authority that there existed in 1831 only three roads as such in the old Mysore State, namely, the road from Mysore to Bangalore, the road from Srirangapatna to Sira and Bellary and the road from Bangalore to Harihar. Of these three roads, the last two roads passed through the Chitradurga district. All these roads were in a very bad condition having portions of the road running through swamps, the passage on which would "detain the baggage of a regiment for an entire day"; other portions looked like water-courses with beds of river sand, the soil having been washed away. There were no bridges at all in the district till 1868, which was a most serious inconvenience to the travelling public. The road bridge on the Tungabhadra was completed in that year affording through communication to the northern parts of **Karnataka**.

Before the introduction of railways and metalled roads, trade in rural parts was localised and was confined to a few articles such as groundnut, cotton, in the production of which the district had natural facilities. The trade was carried on by journey-men who used to frequent the neighbouring weekly markets and the annual *jatras* in the adjacent districts. The goods were carried through country carts or on pack-animals or by headloads. The rural folk of Molakalmuru taluk had only the cart tracks which they made use of for traffic in fair weather for carrying their surplus produce to the big market at Bellary which is about 25 miles from the northern boundary of the taluk.

With the growing agricultural, industrial and trading activities in the district, the necessity was felt for linking up the centres of production and distribution like Davangere, Chitradurga, Harihar, Molakalmuru and so on. Accordingly, during the first quarter of this century, many roads were laid. Feeder roads for railways engaged the attention of the authorities and the construction of these roads was quickly undertaken. During the period

between the two world wars and after, this development was accelerated owing to the rapid growth of the motor transport system.

Roads

The district being a plain country, there was no impediment to the development of transport and communications. There were as on 31st March 1965, 1,616 miles and two furlongs of roads in the district. As against this, in 1930, there were 200 miles of State Fund roads and 295¼ miles of District Fund roads, thus making a total length of only 495¼ miles. There has been an increase of about 1,121 miles of roads in the district since then. The increasing tempo of economic activity in the district has made this development possible and the process has been further facilitated by the growth of the postal, telegraph and telephone services.

The categories of roads in charge of the Public Works Department in the district along with their respective mileages as in 1965 are indicated below :—

	Category		*Length*	
			M.	*F.*
1.	National Highways	..	113	2
2.	State Highways	..	205	7
3.	Major District Roads	..	441	3
4.	Other District Roads	..	190	7
5.	Village Roads	..	349	3
	Total	..	1,300	6

National Highways

National Highways are main roads running through the length and breadth of the country, having a link with other highways. National Highways are maintained by the State Public Works Department out of the Central Government funds. There are two such National Highways running through the district for a length of 113 miles and two furlongs, namely the Bangalore-Dharwar road and the Chitradurga-Sholapur road called National Highways No. 4 and 13, respectively. The Bangalore-Dharwar road is also called the Bangalore-Poona road as it is laid beyond Dharwar upto Poona. Beginning from its northern end, this road from Poona crosses the districts of Poona, Kolhapur, Sangli, Belgaum and Dharwar, and enters the district of Chitradurga at the north-west corner. The road crosses the Tungabhadra bridge at Harihar. It has a total length of 87 miles and four furlongs in the district.

This is an important highway in the district as it touches the two important industrial centres of the district—Davangere and Harihar—and also passes through Chitradurga which is the headquarters of the district. This national highway is laid almost parallel to the Poona—Bangalore railway line upto Davangere and then it takes a south-easterly direction towards Chitradurga. Then it turns towards the south and before entering Tumkur district passes through Hiriyur.

The highway passes over two important bridges, namely, the Tungabhadra bridge at Harihar and the Vedavati bridge at Hiriyur. Being a National Highway it is completely black-topped. Incidentally, the road also cuts the district itself into two equal halves. After passing through the black-cotton soil region of Harihar and Davangere taluks, it enters the hilly region of Chitradurga taluk.

The road is crossed at Hiriyur by the Tiptur-Bellary road and the Hosadurga—Pavagada road. The whole length of the road in this district is almost a straight line from the north—west to the south-east.

The length of the Chitradurga-Sholapur road in the district is 25 miles and 6 furlongs. The Central Government in their notification No. PL 1-1138, dated 4th May 1960, declared this road as National Highway No. 13. This road is being gradually improved to make it a good means of communication from Chitradurga to Sholapur in Maharashtra State, passing through Bellary, Raichur and Bijapur districts. The road starts from Chitradurga and takes a northerly direction towards Jagalur and passing through Kudligi and Hospet towns in Bellary district touches Koppal in Raichur district. After leaving Raichur district, the road enters Bijapur district. Passing through Hungund and Muddebihal, the national highway reaches Bijapur and then runs towards Sholapur.

State Highways

State Highways are defined as the main trunk or arterial roads or branch roads linking up the National Highways and the district headquarters and other important towns within a certain area. These are maintained by the State Government and generally bridged and metalled. There were as on 31st March 1965, 205 miles and 7 furlongs of State Highways in the district of Chitradurga, out of which a length of 190 miles and 4 furlongs was black-topped and a length of 15 miles and 3 furlongs had been treated with water-bound macadam.

The following is the list of the State Highways in the district and their mileage as in 1965 :—

	Name of State Highway		Length M.	F.
1.	Hiriyur—Bellary Road	..	74	5
2.	Chitradurga—Challakere Road	..	17	5
3.	Chitradurga—Bhadravati Road	..	29	0
4.	Harihar—Shimoga Road	..	16	4
5.	Hiriyur—Huliyar Road	..	23	4
6.	Harihar—Harapanahalli Road	..	7	0
7.	Chitradurga—Danchalli Road	..	5	0
8.	Bangalore—Dharwar deviation Road		3	0
9.	Challakere—Pavagada Road	..	29	5
	Total	..	205	7

A brief account of some of the more important State Highways is given below :—

The *Hiriyur-Bellary Road* is none other than the Bangalore—Bellary Road as it branches off from the Bangalore—Dharwar National Highway at Hiriyur. From Hiriyur, it passes through Challakere and Molakalmuru taluks. This road which runs from south to north is met at Challakere by a road from Chitradurga and at Bommagondanakere by another road from Jagalur. This highway is an important line of communication in Challakere and Molakalmuru taluks and as there are no railway lines in the eastern portion of the district, people depend particularly on this road. This road which is 74 miles and 5 furlongs is completely black-topped.

The *Chitradurga—Challakere Road,* which starts from Chitradurga town, runs eastwards and reaches Challakere which is situated at a distance of 17 miles and 5 furlongs from Chitradurga. This road which is continued beyond Challakere upto Pavagada for a distance of 29 miles and five furlongs is called the Challakere-Pavagada Road. From Challakere, it takes an easterly direction, then bends a little to the south-east and enters Pavagada taluk of Tumkur district. It then takes a clear south-easterly direction to reach Pavagada where it meets the Tumkur—Bellary Road which passes *via* Koratagere and Madhugiri in Tumkur district. The road from Chitradurga to Challakere is black-topped.

The *Chitradurga—Bhadravathi Road,* the length of which within the district limits is 29 miles, starts from Chitradurga and

takes a south-west direction towards Holalkere. At Holalkere railway station the road crosses the Bangalore—Poona railway line and runs on to Bhadravathi in Shimoga district through Channagiri. The entire length of 29 miles is black-topped. The location of Holalkere on the route which leads to Chitradurga on the one hand and Bhadravathi on the other, and the large weekly fair held there combine to make it a thriving town, and its prosperity has been promoted by the advent of the railway and the location here of the taluk headquarters. People travelling by train from Shimoga and Bhadravathi to Chitradurga will have to go to Birur to catch the Bangalore—Poona train and change at Chikkajajur to reach Chitradurga. This is a circuitous route and in the absence of a direct railway communication between Shimoga Bhadravathi and Chitradurga, the Bhadravathi—Chitradurga road *via* Channagiri and Holalkere has been important.

The *Harihar—Shimoga Road* starts from Harihar and takes a south-west direction and runs to Shimoga through Honnali in Shimoga district. The length of this road in Chitradurga district is 16 miles and 4 furlongs which is completely black-topped.

The *Hiriyur—Huliyar Road* is another important State Highway connecting Chitradurga and Tumkur districts. It has a length of 23 miles and four furlongs in the district. From Hiriyur, it takes a southern direction to reach Huliyar where there are several roads connecting Chiknayakanhalli, Turuvekere and Sira. People from Hiriyur bound for Arsikere in Hassan district will have to take the Hiriyur—Huliyar road and from Huliyar, they will have to proceed to Arsikere *via* Kanakakatte and Banavara.

Major District Roads

The *Challakere—Jagalur Road* is a Major District Road in the district. The road the length of which is 28 miles and four furlongs is a black-topped road which starts from Challakere and takes a north-west direction to reach Jagalur. In the absence of railway communication, it is very important for traffic in this region.

The *Holalkere—Huliyar Road*, which is 38 miles and 2 furlongs in length, is another important Major District Road in the district. This road is called the Huliyar—Holalkere Road, the Holalkere—Chikkajajur Road and so on, but the whole length is popularly called the Holalkere—Huliyar Road. This line of communication is very important in that it runs almost from the northern to the southern boundary of the district.

The length of the *Davangere—Jagalur Road* is 30 miles and one furlong and it runs from Davangere eastwards to Jagalur. The entire length of this road is black-topped. This road is continued towards the east of the district beyond Jagalur upto

Bommagondanakere where it meets the Hiriyur—Bellary State Highway.

Besides these three, there were the following five other Major District Roads in the district, exceeding 20 miles in length: (1) Vijjapur—Ujjani Road, (2) Hiriyur—Dharmapur Road, (3) Bharamasagar—Bilichodu—Basavanakote Road, (4) Shivaganga—Jankal Road and (5) Hagalkere—Mathodu—Chikkabaladakere Road. There were in all 34 Major District Roads in the district in 1965.

Other Roads

Apart from these roads, there were 25 Other District Roads and a number of village roads. A list of such roads is appended at the end of this chapter. The progress of road development in the district has been sustained and steady. As on 31st March 1956, the total road mileage in the district was only 704 miles and 7 furlongs. This increased to 1,616 miles in 1965. When compared to the total road mileage in the State, which was 32,530 miles, the road mileage in Chitradurga district may not be much but the progress has been considerable. As against the State's road mileage of 0.43 per square mile, the district's road mileage was 0.38 per square mile. The roads are well-surfaced and nearly half of total mileage is of water-bound macadam surface. Of the total length of 1,300 miles and six furlongs of roads in charge of the Public Works Department, 482 miles and five furlongs were black-topped including the National Highways No. 4 and 13. When compared to other parts in the State, the natural soil road mileage in the district was small, being only 27 miles and 7 furlongs. The following table indicates the nature of surface of the roads in the district:—

		M.	F.
Cement-concrete roads	..	1	4
Black-topped	..	482	5
Water-bound macadam	..	653	3
Other kinds of surface	..	135	3
Natural soil	..	27	7
Total	..	1,300	6

The Taluk Boards which are nine in number maintain a fair proportion of surfaced and unsurfaced roads. The total length

of roads under the Taluk Boards was 309 miles and 6 furlongs of which, the unsurfaced portion came to 234 miles and 5 furlongs.

A total length of five miles and six furlongs of forest roads was being maintained by the Forest Department.

During the period from 1958-59 to 1964-65, a total length of 571 miles of District Board Roads was taken over as State Fund Roads.

In the various categories of roads, the National Highway series are the best and are well-maintained. Of the total length of 113 miles and two furlongs belonging to this category, a small portion of one mile and four furlongs had a cement-concreted surface, 100 miles and four furlongs were black-topped and the rest had a water-bound macadam or unmetalled surface. The State Highways are maintained by the Public Works Department out of State Funds. Of the total length of 205 miles and seven furlongs in this category, 190 miles and four furlongs were black-topped and the rest had a water-bound macadam surface. The Major District Roads are those which connect taluk headquarters. The total length of the Major District Roads in the district was 441 miles and three furlongs, of which 273 miles and one furlong had a water-bound macadam surface and the rest was black-topped. There was a total length of 190 miles and seven furlongs of Other District Roads, of which a length of 153 miles and seven furlongs was of water-bound macadam variety. Out of a total length of 349 miles and three furlongs of village roads, 206 and a half miles were treated with water-bound macadam.

In 1956-57, the total expenditure on roads and bridges in the district was Rs. 18.45 lakhs. This has progressively increased and during 1964-65, the expenditure was Rs. 28.91 lakhs.

Bridges

The Tungabhadra road bridge at Harihar is the oldest in the district. This bridge was completed in 1868, enabling uninterrupted flow of traffic on the National Highway from Bangalore to Dharwar. It is of stone and brick, consisting of 14 elliptical arches of 60 feet span ; the cost of construction was 3½ lakhs of rupees. On 27th July 1924, two arches of this bridge were washed out due to heavy floods and these arches were replaced by built-up girders during 1926. There is also a separate bridge over the river for the railway. There are three major bridges constructed across the river Vedavathi, one near Hiriyur on the Bangalore—Dharwar Road, another near Byadarahalli on the Hiriyur—Dharmapura Road and the third near Allapura on the Challakere—Pavagada Road.

Apart from these bridges, other bridges of importance in the district are the following :—

Sl. No.	Name of the bridge	Number of spans and their length	Type of bridge
1	2	3	4
1.	Bridge near Bilichodu on Davangere-Anaji-Jagalur Road.	6 spans of 30 ft. each.	Iron girder bridge.
2.	Bridge near Donehalli on Challakere-Nayakanahatti-Jagalur Road.	4 spans of 30 ft. each	R.C.C. Decking on iron girder.
3.	Bridges at 5 & 6/11 of Davangere-Sulekere road near Kukkavada.	8 spans of 30 ft. each.	R.C.C. Decking slab.
4.	Bridge at 8/42 of Shimoga-Harihar Road.	6 spans of 40 ft. each.	Do
5.	Bridge at 7/6 of Harihar-Harapanahalli Road.	7 spans of 30 ft. each.	Do
6.	Bridge at 3/27 of Chitradurga-Bhadravati Road.	3 spans of 35 ft. each.	Stone masonry arched bridge.
7.	Bridge at 4/24 of Holalkere-Huliyar Road.	9 spans of 30 ft. each.	R.C.C. Decking on iron girder.

In addition to these bridges, one over-bridge has been constructed near Siddlaiyanakote in Hiriyur taluk on the road from Hiriyur to Bellary. Four more bridges have been completed, one across the Vedavathi River near Mylanahalli on the Challakere—Oblapur Road, the second across Janagahalla on the Chitradurga—Bheemasamudra Road, the third being the Narayanapura anicut-*cum*-bridge and the last being the Allapur bridge across Vedavathi on the Challakere—Pavagada Road. Construction of three more bridges in the district was in progress in 1965.

Vehicles and Conveyances

The conditions of life in the modern world necessitate quick and easy transport of passengers and goods from one place to another. But, as elsewhere in the country, the traditional systems of transport also continue to exist in the district. The cheaper modes of conveyance are, without doubt, the beasts of burden like donkeys and ponies. Donkeys and ponies are very useful for carrying cotton and groundnut from the rural areas to the centres of trade and commerce. According to the livestock population census conducted in 1961, there were 3,507 donkeys, and 1,720 horses and ponies in Chitradurga district.

The usual means of cheap and ready conveyance is the bullock cart which is found in large numbers in the rural parts. The goods are heaped on the platform of the cart and generally two bullocks are tied in front. These bullock carts continue to play a considerable part in the agricultural economy of the district. They do not have any tops, except those which are used to seat people. Indeed, these are the only means of transport in the rural parts. According to a survey conducted recently, there were 42,484 carts in this district during 1964-65.

The modern means of conveyances in the district are buses, lorries, private motor cars, motor cycles and cycles. As on 31st January 1966, there were 185 buses and 313 lorries running in the district. Besides, there were 326 private cars, 255 motor cycles, 69 jeeps and 111 vans.

Public Transport

In the sphere of public transport, the district of Chitradurga has been promoting both the private sector as well as the public sector. Nationalisation of public transport has been the declared policy of the State, but this is being implemented gradually and in a phased manner. The Mysore State Road Transport Corporation is running its buses on the following routes :—Bangalore—Hosadurga, Bangalore—Chitradurga, Chitradurga–Bellary, Hubli–Shimoga *via* Harihar, Bangalore—Hospet *via* Chitradurga and Chitradurga—Hassan *via* Hiriyur, Huliyar and Tiptur; besides, a number of buses are running between Chitradurga and Davangere. The road from Chitradurga towards Tumkur, only for a length of 37.6 miles falling within the district's boundary, is a monopoly route and on this road, private buses bound for rural parts are not allowed exceeding a length of five miles.

The Mysore State Road Transport Corporation has introduced luxury buses some of which run through the district and this marks a milestone in the history of the district's road transport system. The routes on which the luxury buses run are Bangalore to Belgaum, Bangalore to Harihar and Bangalore to Panaji. A sleeper bus has also been introduced between Bangalore and Hubli. All these buses pass through Chitradurga. Besides, quite a large number of express buses are running from Bangalore to Chitradurga and some of them which are bound for Hubli or Bellary proceed beyond Chitradurga, Davangere and Harihar.

There are two bus stands at Chitradurga, one being situated in the heart of the town and the other being located just outside the town opposite to the District Hospital. The latter is modern in design and there is plenty of open space around the bus stand; the former, a small stand, is very congested. There are bus stands

at Harihar, Davangere, Challakere and a few other taluk head-quarters. Earnest thought and attention have been bestowed by the municipalities concerned in the construction of these bus stands.

Railways

The development of railways in the district started after the rendition of the Mysore State, when in October 1882, the Bangalore—Harihar line was thought of, as affording a metre-gauge main line from Bangalore to Poona. But long before this, in the year 1863-64, the survey of the line between Bangalore and Tumkur had been completed. But the actual construction was taken up in 1882 and the section from Bangalore to Tumkur, a distance of 43 miles, was completed and opened for traffic in August 1884. The line was subsequently extended to Gubbi, 11 miles from Tumkur, and opened for traffic. Surveys and estimates for extending the line to Harihar were also taken on hand but the construction work was interrupted for a time owing to financial difficulties accentuated by the heavy load of famine debt amounting to nearly a crore of rupees. But the idea of railway expansion which was of paramount importance for economic development was, of course, not given up. Lengthy correspondence took place between the State and the British Government who were not found wanting in coming to the aid of the State Government. It was suggested by the British Indian Government that the construction of the Harihar section be handed over to the Southern Mahratta Railway Company who were in a better financial position to undertake the task. A length of 140 miles was hypothecated to the Company. The actual transfer was effected on 1st July 1886. The terms of agreement stipulated that the whole line from Mysore to Harihar *via* Bangalore was to be administered by the Company as an entirely separate system not similar to the other railway systems existing then in British India. The Company, to which the whole line was transferred, guaranteed an interest at the rate of 4 per cent payable to the State Government. The Southern Mahratta Railway Company adhered to these stipulations and carried on the construction work from Gubbi to Harihar. The traffic on the new section from Gubbi to Harihar commenced from 21st February 1889.

The actual length of the railway line in the district is 82 miles and aligned in two distinct sections, namely,

(i) Shivani to Harihar (main line)

(ii) Chikkajajur to Chitradurga (branch line)

As narrated earlier, the main line to a length of 61 miles in the district was constructed and completed by the Southern Mahratta Railway Company and maintained by them according to an agreement entered into by the Company with the State

Government. The Southern Mahratta Company who were the owners under the agreement later changed their name and called themselves the Madras and Southern Mahratta Railway Company (M. & S.M.) and continued to administer the main line from Shivani to Harihar until 1938 when the Mysore State Railways took over the line.

This line of 61 miles in the district is an important metre-gauge main line affording easy means of railway communication from Bangalore to Poona *via* Arsikere—Birur—Harihar—Hubli—Dharwar—Londa—Belgaum and Miraj. In the district itself, the line passes through open country with very little curves, in a straight line upto Harihar across the black cotton soil area. The gradient is not much because most of the terrain of the district of Chitradurga is flat especially in the western portions where the railway line runs parallel to the Shimoga district boundary. The ruling gradient is 1 in 100 and the sharpest curve noticed is of 3,000′ radius.

The construction of the Chikkajajur—Chitradurga metre gauge railway line was sanctioned by the Government of India on 28th January 1914 but the actual construction work was started in October 1917. The requisite funds for construction were provided by the State and by the District Board of Chitradurga. As only a small portion of the capital was contributed by the District Board, the railway was ordered to be a Government line. This line connects Chikkajajur, a station on the Bangalore—Poona line with Chitradurga, the headquarters of the district. This branch line of 21 miles was opened for traffic in 1921.

The Chitradurga branch line which starts from Chikkajajur runs to the east for a while and then takes a north-east direction to reach Chitradurga. It is laid to a ruling gradient of 1 in 100, the sharpest curvature being 1,146′ radius. The line passes through a hilly region mainly in the first five miles where it crosses a range of hills leading to a plateau in the vicinity of Amritapur Station

There is only one major bridge across Janagahalla on the Chikkajajur—Chitradurga line at mile No. 14/15-16. The bridge is of three spans. There are ten birdges on the Shivani—Harihar line.

On the Bangalore—Poona line, there are 11 railway stations within the confines of Chitradurga district. These are: Shivani, Hosadurga Road, Ramagiri, Holalkere, Chikkajajur, Sasalu, Mayakonda, Kodaganur, Tolahunse, Davangere and Harihar. Among these stations, Davangere and Harihar are important as they are the industrial and business centres of the district. The Chikkaja-

jur station is a small junction where the Chitradurga branch line starts.

The Shivani—Harihar line which runs close to the western boundary of the district passes through Hosadurga, Holalkere, Davangere and Harihar taluks thereby affording easy means for the transport of goods and passengers from one place to the other. The railway construction has had a marked effect upon Jagalur taluk also. Although the line does not run very close to the taluk, it is in close proximity to the western villages whose market centre has always been Davangere, to which place trade is, more than ever, being drawn.

The railway stations on the Chitradurga branch line are Amritapur, Bettadanagenahalli, Haliyur and Chitradurga, of which Chitradurga is the only important station. This railway line of 21 miles runs through Holalkere and Chitradurga taluks only.

With the extension of the railway system, it became more and more necessary to construct new roads affording access to railway stations. The State Government have made every effort to achieve this objective.

A glance at the Chitradurga communication map reveals that the two railway lines described above are laid in the western portion. The eastern portion of the district is without railways. Surveys have been undertaken a number of times for the construction of a railway line from Chitradurga to Sira and from Chitradurga to Rayadurg *via* Molakalmuru. Such a line directly connecting Sira and Tumkur to Chitradurga will be very helpful in promoting the prosperity of this area. As it is, the main railway line from Bangalore to Harihar is not very direct but it has taken a bow-type round-about route. A Chitradurga—Rayadurg line is also viewed with favour since there is already a metre gauge line from Rayadurg to Bellary. This new line will link up Chikkajajur with Bellary.

Travellers' Bungalows and Rest Houses

Just as the district is well provided with roads and to some extent railways, it is also well provided with travellers' bungalows, *musafirkhanas* and other types of rest houses, providing accommodation to the tourists and travellers. Extremely liberal provisions were made for the construction of *chatras* by the late Rulers of the State. A list of the existing travellers' bungalows together with their particulars is given in the Appendix. Some of the travellers' bungalows of the district situated at Chitradurga, Hiriyur, Davangere and Harihar are of superior type. The rest of the bungalows are situated in the other important places of the district like taluk headquarters and places of tourist or industrial

importance. There are *musafirkhanas* at Chitradurga, Bharamasagara, Challakere, Hirehalli, Hiriyur, Holalkere, Davangere, Hosadurga Road near Mallappanahalli, Molakalmuru, Jagalur and a few other places in the district. The rest houses in the district are not many and the details of the existing rest houses are also given in the Appendix. There is a forest lodge at Jogimatti and a rest house at Vanivilasapura.

Posts and Telegraphs

The Indian Posts and Telegraphs Department maintains, in the district of Chitradurga, four postal sub-divisions which are attached to the Tumkur Postal Division. The four sub-divisions are :—

(i) Chitradurga Sub-division,

(ii) Davangere Sub-division,

(iii) Challakere Sub-division and

(iv) Hiriyur Sub-division.

Each sub-division is under the administrative control of an Inspector of Post Offices who is responsible to the Superintendent of Post Offices, Tumkur Division.

There is a Head Post Office in Chitradurga town. The number of sub-offices, branch offices and combined post offices (post and telegraphs) in the district was 39, 327 and 22 respectively, in January 1966.

Letters are delivered by postmen in towns and villages. Besides, postal runners are employed to carry the postal bags from the sub-offices to branch offices where train or bus facilities are not available. In the villages which are without post offices but which are served by offices at some distance, the letters are delivered by village postmen or delivery agents. Money orders are accepted and issued at all post offices including the village post offices. The sale of post-cards, stamps and the like is done at all the post offices. Mails are carried in this district by rail, motor buses and in some cases by postal runners.

Telephone Exchanges

The first telephone exchange in the district was opened at Davangere on 5th February 1953 with 44 connections. It is a manual system with a connectable capacity of 500 lines. Proposals are under examination for a further expansion by another 200 lines and also for the ultimate installation of an automatic exchange.

An automatic telephone exchange with a capacity of 300 lines is functioning at Chitradurga. The number of working connections at this place in 1966 was 195.

Besides the above, there were telephone exchanges at the following places also in the district.

Town		*Capacity*	*No. of connections*
Hiriyur	..	100	46
Harihar	..	50	38
Challakere	..	50	25
Hosadurga	..	25	25
Holalkere	..	25	25
Jagalur	..	25	8
Sirigere	..	10	10

The first public call office was opened on 9th January 1957 at Hiriyur and in March of the same year, the second was opened at Molakalmuru. The Jagalur and Challakere call offices were opened in March and April 1958, respectively. Another one was opened at Sirigere in January 1959. All these places except Molakalmuru have since been provided with telephone exchanges. There were in 1966 seven public call offices in the district, one each at Aimangala, Bilichodu, Bharamasagara, Doddasiddavanahalli, Hosadurga Road, Molakalmuru and Thalak. Further, public call offices for booking local and trunk calls exist at all the post offices where telephone exchanges are functioning.

Statement showing the details of Road Mileage in charge of the Public Works Department in Chitradurga district as on 31st March 1965.

Sl. No.	Name of Road	Total length in the District	Cement Concrete	Black-topped	Metalled	Other kinds of surface treatment	Natural soil
1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8
		M. F.	M. F.	M. F.	M. F.	M. F.	M. F.
	I. National Highways.						
1	Bangalore—Dharwar road	87—4	1—4	86—0	..	..	..
2.	Chitradurga—Sholapur road	25—6	..	..	14—4	4—4	6—6
	II State Highways.						
1.	Chitradurga—Challakere road	17—5	..	17—5	..	..	..
2.	Bangalore—Dharwar deviation road	3—0	..	3—0	..	..	..
3.	Chitradurga—Bhadravathi road	29—0	.	29—0	..	..	..
4.	Hiriyur—Huliyar road	23—4	..	9—4	14—0	..	..
5.	Shimoga—Harihar road	16—4	..	16—4	..	..	..
6.	Harihar—Harapanahalli road	7—0	..	7—0	..	..	..
7.	Hiriyur—Bellary road	74—5	..	74—5	..	..	..
8.	Chitradurga —Danchalli road	5—0	..	5—0	..	..	..
9.	Challakere—Pavagada road	29—5	..	28—2	1—3	..	..
	III. Major District Roads.						
	(Chitradurga Division)						
1.	Chitradurga—Turuvanur—Mustur road	20—0	..	7—5	12—3	..	..
2.	Hirebennur—Sirigere—Sasalur road	8—0	..	[illegible]—0	..	..	..
3.	Challakere—Nayakanahatti—Jagalur road	28—4	..	28—4	..	..	..

1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8
4.	Hanagal—Rayadurg road	6—3	..	6—3	..	..	..
5.	Ashoka Inscription road	6—0	..	0—3	5—5	..	..
6.	Thalak—Nayakanahatti road	8—3	..	3—4	4—7	..	..
7.	Hiriyur—Dharmapur road	23—2	..	8—7	14—3	..	..
8.	Hiriyur—V. V. Pura road	11—0	..	11—0	..	..	..
9.	Hiriyur—Hosadurga weir road	3—2	..	..	3—2	..	..
10.	Bangalore—Dharwar road *via* Jampanaikanakote—Doddasiddavanahalli—Kalliroppa road.	14—0	..	..	14—0	..	..
11.	Metikurki—Ganganaikanahalli—Hemadalal—Siddanakote road.	13—2	..	..	13—2	..	..
12.	Sanikere—Kalliroppa road	3—0	..	..	..	3—0	..
	(Davangere Division)						
13.	Anagodu—Anaji road	7—0	..	..	7—0	..	..
14.	Davangere—Anaji—Jagalur road	30—1	..	30—1	..	..	..
15.	Davangere—Sulekere road	15—0	..	13—7	1—1	..	..
16.	Davangere—Malebennur road	8—0	..	1—3	6—5	..	..
17.	Davangere—Badasanthebennur road	12—7	..	..	12—7	..	..
18.	Anaji—Uchangidurga—Harapanahalli road	2—0	..	0—2	1—6	..	..
19.	Malebennur—Channagiri road	2—4	..	2—4	..	..	..
20.	Kodaganur—Chikkajajur road	17—6	..	7—2	10—4	..	..
21.	Vijjapur—Ujjani road	30—7	..	12—1	18—6	..	..
22.	Chitradurga—Donnehalli road	5—0	..	0—3	4—5	..	..

1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8
23.	Bharmasagara-Bilichodu-Basavanakote Road ..	22—7	..	1—1	21—6	..	..
24.	Holalkere Railway Feeder Road ..	0—3	..	0—3	..	..	..
25.	Holalkere-Huliyar Road	38—2	..	12—3	25—7	..	..
26.	Holalkere-Chikkajajur Road	6—7	..	0—3	6—4	..	..
27.	Sirigere-Sasalur Road	4—7	..	3—7	1—0	..	..
28.	Sulekere-Sasalur Road	4—5	..	..	4—5	..	..
29.	Holalkere-Ramagiri Road	12—4	..	..	12—4	..	..
30.	Bharmagiri-Hosadurga Road	19—6	..	4—0	15—6	..	..
31.	Tarikere-Hosadurga Road	9—6	..	..	9—6	..	..
32.	Hagalkere-Mathodu—Chikkabaladakere Road	20—1	..	..	20—1	..	..
33.	Shivaganga-Jankal Road	20—2	..	1—0	19—2	..	..
34.	Anagodu-Kodaganur Road	5—0	..	3—0	2—0	..	..
	IV. Other District Roads *(Chitradurga Division)*						
1.	Chitradurga-Bheemasamudra Road ..	10—0	..	9—0	1—0	..	..
2.	Murgimutt Road	2—3	..	1—4	0—7	..	..
3.	Hangal-Hulusankanahalli Road ..	4—4	..	3—5	0—7	..	..
4.	Aimangala-Yerhalli Road	8—2	..	1—0	7—2	..	..
5.	Ranikere Approach Road	1—4	..	..	1—4	..	..
6.	Parashuramapura-Abbinahole-Dharmapura Road.	13—3	..	..	13—3	..	..
7.	Meerasabihalli-Jajur-Oblapura Road ..	18—0	..	3—4	11—4	3—0	..
8.	Molakalmuru—Konasagara Road ..	12—3	..	..	12—3	..	..
9.	Ramapura-Appenahatti Road	4—2	..	..	4—2	..	..

1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8
10.	Bommanahalli-Sirigere-Hampanur Road ..	14—4	..	..	7—4	7—0	..
11.	Bheemasamudra-Bharamanaikanadurga Road	3—0	..	..	2—4	0—4	..
12.	Pandrahalli—Bettadanagenahalli-Bheemasamudra Road.	6—0	..	..	1—0	5—0	..
13.	Adivala-Nandihalli-Eswarapura Road ..	10—4	..	10—4	..	..	..
14.	Jagalur—Kanamadur Road ..	8—4	..	..	8—4	..	..
	(Davangere Division)						
15.	Yekkegundi-Nandigudi Road	10—0	..	2—0	8—0	..	..
16.	Hebbal-Annapura Road	5—3	..	..	5—3	..	..
17.	Bilichodu-Sokke Road	15—0	..	..	14—4	0—4	..
18.	Hagalakere-Belagur Road	9—0	..	0—2	8—6	..	..
19.	Bagur-Hosadurga Railway Station Road ..	5—2	..	..	5—2	..	..
20.	Bedarakere-Hosadurga Road	6—4	..	..	6—4	..	..
21.	Belagur-Maravanji Road	0—7	..	..	0—7	..	..
22.	Belagur-Thimmalapur Road	2—7	..	..	2—7	..	..
23.	Hosadurga-Bagur Road	5—0	..	..	5—0	..	..
24.	Narayanagondanahalli—Ramagiri Road ..	8—1	..	..	8—1	..	..
25.	Bharamanayakanadurga—Bheemasamudra Road.	5—6	..	0—1	5—5	..	..

1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8
	V. Village Roads						
	(Chitradurga Division)						
1.	Aimangala to Hosakere-Devarapura Road	17—4	..	..	4—0	13—4	..
2.	Belgatta-Hayakal-Nayakanahatti Road	16—0	.	..	11—0	5—0	..
3.	Haliyur Railway Station to Hullur	3—0	..	..	..	3—0	..
4.	Challakere-Myalanahalli—Obalapura-Doddabadihalli Road.	28—0	.	..	28—0	..	..
5.	4/108 of Salem-Bellary Road to Rangenahalli	5—4	..	..	5—4	..	..
6.	Patrahalli-Pilali-Dosudi-Huliyar Road ..	17—0	..	..	8—0	9—0	..
7.	Beeranahalli—Gownahalli to Kolal to join Hosakere-Devarapura—Aimangala Road near Kolal.	7—4	..	..	5—6	1—6	..
8.	Javagondanahalli to Gayathri Reservoir ..	4—6	..	..	4—6	..	..
9.	Molakalmuru—Sulemanhalli—Rayapura—Turukarahalli—Chikkanahalli road.	10—0	..	..	10—0	..	..
10.	Aimangala—Maradihalli—Jampanaikanakote—Balenahalli—Ramajogihalli—Hayakal road.	20—2	..	..	9—1	11—1	..
11.	Amrithapura—Palya road	4—0	..	..	..	4—0	..
12.	Salem—Bellary road to Devasamudram to Somalapura Railway Station.	8—0	..	0—6	7—2	..	..

1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8
13.	Yeraballi—Byadarahalli road	10—0	..	..	..	10—0	..
14.	Road from Survanahalli to Abbayanahalli ..	4—0	..	..	..	4—0	..
15.	Yelgod—Turuvanur—Doddagatta to join Belgatta—Nayakanhatti road.	9—0	..	..	..	9—0	..
16.	Bommagondanakere—Mubhegarahalli—Saranahalli—Huden road.	5—7	..	..	..	5—7	..
17.	Bharamasagara—Bidarkere—Donehalli road ..	17—3	..	..	17—3	..	..
	(Davangere Division)						
18.	Davangere-Kondajji-Kurubarahalli Road ..	10—6	..	0—3	10—3	..	..
19.	Amritapura Railway Station to Hosakere-Devarapura—Madadakere Road.	21—4	..	..	11—2	10—2	..
20.	Hosakere-Basavankote Road	12—4	..	..	12—4	..	..
21.	Hunsekatte-Kandanakovi-Davangere Road ..	17—2	..	..	13—2	4—0	..
22.	Belagur-Srirampura Road	8—4	..	..	8—4	..	..
23.	Beeranahalli-Gownahalli to Holahal Road	4—1	..	..	2—0	..	2—1
24.	Chikkajajur to Hireyemmiganur Road ..	6—4	..	..	1—0	..	5—4
25.	Amrithapura-Palya Road ..	2—0	..	..	2—0	..	..
26.	Bommagondanakere-Chowlakere-Abbigarahalli-Torakolamanahalli-Chikkamallanahole Road.	13—0	..	..	3—0	8—0	2—0
27.	Bharamasamudra-Chikkamallanahole Road ..	11—5	..	0—2	9—4	1—7	..
28.	Holalkere Railway Station to Haninahatti *via* Gunderi-Viswanathanahalli.	7—0	..	..	7—0	..	..
29.	Malebennur-Nadugandi Road	8—0	..	..	4—0	4—0	..
30.	Approach Road to Malladihalli	2—4	..	1—0	1—4	..	..

1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8
	District Board Roads taken over by the P.W.D. during 1963-64 and 1964-65.						
1.	Road connecting Huchavvanahalli village and Davangere-Holalkere road *via* Mayakonda village and on to Holalkere road.	3—4	..	..	1—0	2—4	..
2.	Kottagudda to Devikere on Davangere—Jagalur road.	3—0	..	..	2—4	0—4	..
3.	Lokikere to Devikere on Davangere—Jagalur road.	9—0	..	..	..	..	9—0
4.	Road from 4/11th mile of Hagalkere—Mathodu Chikkabyaladakere road.	1—4	..	..	..	..	1—4
5.	Naranahalli to Davangere—Jagalur road ..	0—4	..	..	0—4	..	..
6.	Road from Babbur to Maskal *via* Alur-Bochapura—Yelanadu in Hiriyur taluk.	7—4	..	..	..	7—4	..
7.	Road from Metikurke to Sooragondanahalli ..	3—3	..	..	..	3—3	..
8.	Ranganathapura to Sira border road *via* Harnakatte—Kundlapura—Ikkanur—Kurubarahalli road.	7—0	..	..	..	7—0	..
9.	Davangere—Budihal Road	0—4	..	..	..	..	0—4
10.	Portion of Municipal Road from Poona-Bangalore Road to the present D.C. Office Road, Chitradurga	0—4	..	..	..	..	0—4

CHAPTER VIII

MISCELLANEOUS OCCUPATIONS

Livelihood Pattern

EARLIER chapters have dealt with the more important aspects of the district's economy, such as agriculture, industry, trade and commerce and transport and communications, in which a majority of the working population is engaged. Out of the total population of 10,94,284 (1961 Census) in Chitradurga district, 76.1 per cent depends directly or indirectly for its livelihood on cultivation, 7.8 per cent is engaged in industries, 3.2 per cent in trade and commerce and 0.6 per cent in transport. But this does not exhaust the whole field of economic activity and a considerable percentage of the population is engaged in other occupations like public administration, learned professions, fine arts, domestic service and certain other occupations which are attracting an increasing number of persons to urban areas. No detailed survey, either sociological or economic, has been undertaken about the various occupational groups in the district and in the absence of such a survey, any attempt to describe these groups would inevitably be limited in scope. The census of 1961, however, throws light, to some extent, on the livelihood pattern of the people in the district and it is on the basis of the figures, compiled in that census that the present description is based.

Public Administration Service

Public Administration.—Persons engaged in the several branches of public administration form an appreciable percentage of the population of this district. These are persons working in the various offices under the Central and State Governments, those working on the establishments of the various local bodies and the village officials. According to the census of 1961, there were 8,181 employees of the Government, inclusive of the Union Government, local bodies and village officers and servants including village watchmen. The majority of the persons employed in Government service or the service of the local bodies belong to the middle or lower-middle classes. Persons belonging to this category as also those employed in big industrial concerns enjoy certain benefits in the shape of dearness and other allowances. The Government have also been advancing liberal loans to Government employees to build their own houses under different schemes and are affording

various other amenities aimed at giving relief to low-paid employees.

Learned Professions

Education.—Being one of the educationally forward districts of the Mysore State, about 25 per cent of the total population are literates. The 1961 Census records that there were in all 4,388 persons engaged in educational services and research. The number of persons unconnected with any educational institution but who followed the profession of private teaching was 250. Possibly with the increase in population and consequently the increase in the number of students, the number of persons engaged in educational services should also have registered an increase.

Medicine.—There were 334 men and 14 women engaged in the profession of medicine, surgery and dentistry in 1961. Out of these, 92 were allopathic physicians and surgeons, while the rest followed other systems including Ayurveda and Unani. Added to these, there were 465 nurses, midwives and other medical and health technicians of whom 138 were women.

Law.—The number of persons associated with the profession of law in the district in 1961 was 143. Out of this, 126 were legal practitioners. Law seems to have been a thriving profession in the district and quite a number of lawyers go out to take up cases in courts in other districts also.

Arts and Letters.—This category covers artists, writers and related workers. The census of 1961 has recorded that there were 400 persons belonging to this category out of whom 47 were women. Besides these, there were 58 photographers and allied workers; all of them except six lived in the urban areas.

Domestic and Personal Services

Domestic Services.—Under this group, domestic servants, cooks, barbers, tailors, washermen and the like are included. The total number of persons engaged under this group in 1961 was 11,110 of whom 6,110 were men and 5,000 were women. Only persons belonging to the higher income groups and middle-income groups could employ domestic servants and the lower-middle classes had to do without domestic servants. These servants were employed in general for work like cleaning the house, washing the utensils and other odd domestic jobs. The level of wages paid varied between Rs. 200 and Rs. 350 per annum, with food and clothing. Those who are not given food by the employers are paid a little more in the shape of wages. According to the 1961 Census, there were 925 cooks and cook-bearers (domestic and institutional) in the district, of whom 141 were women. These persons were paid between Rs. 45 and Rs. 75 a month. The number of motor-drivers and cleaners who are employed by a few rich people was, in 1961, only 218 in a population of 10,94,284.

Barbers.—The barber or 'nayinda' has a distinct role to play in the affairs of the Hindu family. The old practice of having a family barber is fast vanishing, but the presence of the barber is essential at certain religious ceremonies and rituals like Chudakarma, Upakarma, funerals and such other occasions. According to the census of 1961, there were 1,376 barbers of whom a majority were in the rural areas. The census has not recorded the number of hair-cutting saloons in the district. According to the figures obtained from the Inspectors of Shops and Establishments of Davangere and Chitradurga, there were at the beginning of 1966, 30 saloons at Chitradurga, 53 at Davangere, 17 at Harihar and 10 at Challakere. The number of saloons in the remaining places is not available as they have not come under the Shops and Establishments Act yet. But it may be said that there are not less than one dozen saloons in each of the other towns. There are not many hair-cutting saloons in the rural parts, where even to this day the barbers attend on their clients at the latter's houses. In towns, it has become customary for the people to go to the saloons for their hair-cut. But even in these places, the orthodox Hindus do not generally go to the saloons; they would much rather have their hair cut at their own houses. Of course, the payment for services rendered at home is naturally a little higher than at the saloons.

The equipment of saloons consisting of some furniture like chairs and tables, mirrors, scissors, razors and cropping machines and toilet requisites would be worth Rs. 250 in smaller establishments, Rs. 500 in the medium-sized establishments and Rs. 600 to Rs. 1,000 in the larger establishments. The number of customers served daily by these establishments depends on their size and also on their being in the vicinity of the bazaar area. Other factors like the conveniences and comforts offered, the popularity of the owner, the goodwill of the customers and the general reputation of the saloon also play their part.

Washermen.—There were 2,831 washermen and launderers in the district in 1961 of whom 1,744 were men and 1,087 women. The majority of these washermen live in rural areas. In the olden days, the washermen used to collect clothes from different houses and used to clean them in tanks or ponds with the help of a type of sand locally called as *choulu mannu*. Nowadays, they have taken to more efficient means of washing with the help of soda, soaps and other cleaning agents. A comparatively modern development in the profession is the establishment of laundries. In the laundries ironing is done in the shop itself while the washing is done at the banks of the rivers or in tanks.

The exact total number of laundries in the district is not known. But according to the figures given by the Inspectors of Shops and Establishments of Davangere and Chitradurga, there

were in the beginning of 1966, 61 laundries at Chitradurga, about 70 at Davangere, 15 at Challakere and 13 at Harihar. It may be presumed that there are about 15 to 20 laundries in the other towns. Accurate figures for these places are not available as they have not come under the Shops and Establishments Act so far. More than half of the workers engaged in this trade are paid employees, the rest being the owners and their family members. The establishments in the towns are fairly distributed over all the localities of the town. Most of the establishments are in rented buildings, the rent ranging from Rs. 20 to 50 a month. It is difficult to estimate correctly the monthly net income of these establishments, but it would not be incorrect if the income of the small-sized establishments is estimated to be between Rs. 100 and Rs. 200, and that of the medium-sized and large establishments from Rs. 200 to Rs. 500. The large establishments are those which have specialised in dry cleaning. We find a small number of this type of laundries with mechanised vacuum washing machines at Chitradurga, Davangere and Harihar.

Tailors.—The number of tailors, cutters and related workers in the district in 1961 was 3,913. The majority of them are to be found in the urban areas. The profession of tailoring is followed by individuals assisted by the members of their families. It is a full-time occupation providing employment throughout the year. Small establishments usually have only one sewing machine and besides the proprietor, who himself works at it, one or two boys are usually employed for buttoning and other minor work. A medium-sized establishment possesses two or three machines and employs about four to six persons, while a large establishment has more than six machines and employs about 10 to 12 persons.

The smaller establishments cannot afford to purchase the sewing machines outright and so they purchase them on instalment basis from the local agents of the manufacturing companies. A big establishment invests about Rs. 5,000 to Rs. 10,000 on sewing machines alone. Scissors, cutting table, cup-boards, ironing machines, mirrors and a few pieces of furniture costing in all about Rs. 2,000 are among the other materials needed. In the rural parts, tailoring is confined to the making of simple garments but in the urban areas, the tailoring firms specialise in stitching costly and varied types of clothes.

Employment in Hotels and Restaurants

Hotels and Restaurants.—In recent years, this occupation is being pursued by a large number of enterprising hoteliers who have started eating houses in every nook and corner of the urban areas. The number of hotels and restaurants in the whole of the district in January 1966 was 204 as per the figures supplied by the Labour Department and the majority of them were concentrated in Davangere, Chitradurga, Harihar, Hosadurga, Holalkere, Challakere and Hiriyur. There are two types of hotels in the district,

one providing only snacks and the other providing meals, though some of the larger hotels combine both. The hotel hours are so arranged that at meal-time, no snacks are generally supplied. Hotels and restaurants in Davangere in particular compare favourable with the same kind of establishments in Bangalore, Mysore and such other places. Most of the hotels here are fairly clean and the food served is wholesome. Different types of meals are served; those who are in a hurry and/or want less costly meals are served with fewer items and lesser quantity and these are usually called plate-meals; others may take a full course meal served either in plates or on plantain leaves. Some hotels in Davangere and Chitradurga provide lodging facilities also.

According to the 1961 Census, there were 230 employers employing 1,234 men and 36 women workers in the district.

Most of the hotels and restaurants in the district have not invested large capital. They were started on a moderate scale and have developed with a spirit of competition. It is estimated that a sum of Rs. 10,000 to Rs. 15,000 is required to start a medium hotel catering for about 200 to 300 persons.

Bakeries.—Bakeries preparing soft bread and biscuits according to the oven method are found in only three places in the district, *viz.*, Chitradurga, Davangere and Harihar. In all, there are about a dozen bakeries and out of them, four are in Davangere, three in Harihar and five in Chitradurga. They are housed in small rooms, the frontage of some rooms being used for vending purposes. Generally, the bakery is a one-man establishment, the proprietor being assisted by members of his family.

Basket-making—Basket-making has been one of the flourishing occupations in Chitradurga district. The census of 1961 has recorded that there were 3,968 basket-makers spread over the different parts of the district; 1,372 were men and 2,596 were women. A majority of these basket-makers belonged to the rural parts. The Medar community in the district has acquired a traditional skill and craftsmanship of a high order in this occupation. Basket-making being a hereditary occupation, the basket-makers have a sentimental attachment to the work which has been passed on to them from generation to generation. Persons engaged in this work are very poor and eke out a precarious livelihood. During harvest months, there is an increased demand for mats, baskets and such other articles. Grain-containers manufactured out of bamboo, locally called *galiges*, are a speciality of this district. Ladders, baskets and trays are among the other products manufactured. Crafts

Carpentry.—The number of carpenters and related workers, as stated in the census of 1961, was 2,514, of whom a majority lived

in the villages. Carpenters are skilled artisans and they play a vital role in the rural economy of the district. Furniture for domestic use like benches, chairs and tables, building equipments like doors and window frames, agricultural implements, carts and several other articles are manufactured by them. The carpenters work in groups as well as in family circles and generally, a carpenter earns about Rs. 3 to Rs. 6 a day.

Blacksmithy—The number of black-smiths and other workers in iron and makers of implements as recorded in the census of 1961 was 1,460 of whom a majority lived in the rural parts. The census has also recorded that there were 111 women associated in this work. But it is not clear whether those women were actually doing the work of black-smiths or only lending a helping hand. With the increase in demand for agricultural and other iron implements which are necessary for the agricultural families, the number of black-smiths in the district has been increasing. Almost all the towns and big villages have several families engaged in this occupation. The tools and equipment used in producing the agricultural implements, buckets and the like are anvils, hammers, blowers, chisels and furnaces. The raw materials required are mainly iron sheets, round bars and flats. This occupation is a seasonal occupation in the sense that the workers are brisk during the months when agricultural operations are in full swing and the demand for the implements is heavy. On an average a person engaged in blacksmithy earns about Rs. 100 to Rs. 125 a month. As the local agriculturists supply the necessary raw materials, the blacksmith need not invest any large capital to carry on his occupation; as such, the question of finance is not an important factor to a blacksmith.

Goldsmithy.—The number of goldsmiths in the district of Chitradurga, as per the 1961 census, was 1,820.

The village goldsmith often works alone and sometimes takes his near relations to work as apprentices. He confines himself generally to the manufacture of simple ornaments and a single artisan will often turn his hand to what would in large centres of trade be looked upon as separate functions requiring special skill, like embossing, chasing and the like.

Further, the goldsmith and the silversmith are generally the same in rural parts and there has been no clear distinction between the two branches of trade except in large towns.

The promulgation of the Gold Control Order in 1963 and the rules which followed affected the goldsmiths considerably and many of them were displaced from their traditional occupation. The effects of the measure were felt in the district also and the displaced goldsmiths turned to Government for help. The State

Gold Control Office initiated a series of helpful measures to rehabilitate the displaced goldsmiths ; 259 self-employed goldsmiths were given certificates in order to enable them to manufacture 14 carat gold ornaments. Facilities on a priority basis were given to displaced goldsmiths to find jobs in industrial concerns and local bodies. Preference was also shown to those who desired to join the services. For some who wanted to get themselves trained as fitters, welders, compositors, book-binders and tailors, special short-term orientation schemes were initiated. In the matter of giving lands to displaced goldsmiths, instructions were issued to the Deputy Commissioners to show them special concessions. Taking advantage of the liberal measures, the displaced goldsmiths in the district started Goldsmiths' Industrial Co-operative Societies to promote small-scale industries like the manufacture of brass utensils, smithy-craft, carpentry, manufacture of umbrellas, printing presses and the like. Four such societies located in Chitradurga, Davangere, Challakere and Hosadurga have been given a total loan assistance of Rs. 1,30,000.

Pottery.—The number of potters, makers of other earthen-ware and related workers was 2,806 in 1961 and most of them lived in villages of the district. This cottage industry is carried on by the Kumbara community. The products manufactured are generally sold in the local shandies and markets. The equipment of a potter consists of a wheel, frames and buckets. Quality of the earthen vessels depends more on the skill of hands than the equipment. The only raw materials required are fuel and clay. The clay is mixed with horsedung before it is used. The vessels when dried are burnt with the help of fuel. The daily earnings of a potter vary from Rs. 3 to Rs. 4 depending on the skill of the worker and the quantity of the products manufactured.

Flower-sellers.—Flower-sellers are found in all the big towns selling the common *kakada* and other imported flowers like *mallige*, *jaji*, rose and fragrant leaves like the *davana*. Flowers are tied in strings and sold by lengths. Loose flowers are also kept for sale. Chitradurga taluk grows a large quantity of the *kakada* flower, which is exported to Bombay and other places in northern India. The flower-sellers use the ordinary basket, white thread, scissors and a bucketful of water for spraying the flowers in order to prevent their wilting. The actual number of flower-sellers cannot be correctly estimated as they are not licensed or controlled under any statute. But it may be presumed that there are about 15 to 20 each at Chitradurga and Davangere and about two dozens in the urban places of the district.

A table showing the occupational classification of persons at work other than cultivation in the district in 1961 is given in the Appendix.

CHAPTER IX

ECONOMIC TRENDS

Introduction

THE economic growth of Chitradurga district has been well planned, having regard to its potentialities in the fields of agriculture, irrigation, industries, communications and other spheres. In this respect, it may be said that the district offers scope for development in all these fields. The Third Five-Year Plan envisaged a magnitude of effort which was much greater than that of the preceding Plans. In order to get the maximum out of plan schemes, the implementation part of it was carried out with the highest possible efficiency at all levels, especially at the levels of the district, block and village. In any study of economic growth, the man-power potentiality plays a prominent part. According to the 1961 Census, out of the district's total population of 10,94,284, 5,57,592 persons actually put their shoulders to developmental work. These persons were classed as workers doing manual work in the fields and factories. A further classification of this figure indicates that 3,37,014 persons were engaged in cultivation. Either they owned lands or were classed as tenants. These cultivators were assisted by 79,707 agricultural labourers. The district contains 1,485 villages and nearly 83 per cent of the district's population live in rural areas. The urban percentage was only 17 to the total population and these reside in 12 towns. The bulk of the man-power, barring those who were engaged in industries, carried out farming in an area comprising about 5,42,000 hectares (1964-65). The total production of all kinds of foodgrains was estimated at 1,89,000 metric tonnes according to the Statistical Abstract of Mysore published recently. A booklet on the district's Third Five-Year Plan programme published in 1965 gives figures concerning the yield of principal food crops. It is estimated that jowar, which is a principal crop in the district, had a total output of 8,41,638 pallas (100 seers=one palla). The poor man's food, ragi, had a total output of 11,73,168 pallas, whereas the district produced 9,64,329 pallas of paddy. Among the non-food crops, cotton had a good yield with 4,96,405 maunds. There was also a good production of groundnut amounting to 30,315 tons.

In the industrial sphere also, there is good scope for development. The 1961 census reveals that 16,274 persons were engaged in manufacturing industries, 11,414 in constructional work, 38,376 persons in household industries and 15,926 persons in mining, plantation and fishing industries.

Iron ore is found in some places in the district and the production was 2,09,398 metric tonnes, valued at Rs 9,07,630 during 1965. Manganese ore is also mined in the district and its production was over 39,000 metric tonnes in the year 1965. Limestone production is being geared up in the district.

The number of bigger industrial establishments, both perennial and seasonal in the district, was 62 in 1963-64 giving employment to about 9,000 workers. The average number of workers employed daily in the several mines came to about 4,325.

The situation and economic resources of a region exert an immense influence on its industrial development. The land-locked position of the district is a factor of considerable importance in determining the nature of its economy. Since no direct access to the sea is available, the exportation of industrial products would normally pose a serious problem, but as the industrial centres like Davangere, Harihar and Chitradurga are on railway routes and trunk roads, the transportation of finished products to distant places has become somewhat easy.

Agro-Industries

Agro-industries play a prominent role in the economy of the district. Prior to the advent of power, all the cotton produced in the district was being sent outside the State. But with the emergence of large-scale industries like cotton mills in Davangere, the cotton grown in the district is being retained. The district is particularly noted for its ginning factories. The raw cotton gathered from the fields is taken for ginning and sent to various textile mills for weaving and carding. The oil industries also have potentialities and in recent years vegetable oil factories have sprung up.

The cotton textile industry is one of the important large-scale industries in the district. Most of the mills are located in Davangere and they have all been licensed under the Industries (Development and Regulation) Act, 1951. The units are producing cloth, yarn, staple fibre yarn and the like. Some more textile units are expected to come up in the near future, adding to the economic development of the district.

As there is already a well developed sugarcane area and potentiality for increasing the sugarcane acreage in the Hiriyur region, a licence has been issued to the Vanivilas Co-operative Sugar Factory, Ltd., to put up their co-operative unit near Hiriyur

for manufacture of sugar. This new enterprise will further add to the economic development of the area.

The development of village and small-scale industries is being carried out according to plan, providing employment to a large number of persons. While this policy helps to reduce unemployment and particularly under-employment, in the villages, it also facilitates the setting up of industrial units supplementary to the large and medium industries.

The Reserve Bank credit schemes, as also the financial help extended by the State Financial Corporation, the Mysore Central Co-operative Rural Industrial Financing Bank, Ltd., and other agencies have helped industrial promotion to a large extent.

Scope for more Small-scale Industries

There are possibilities of establishing more small-scale industries in the district. A review of the resources of the district has shown that plenty of tanning bark is available and that there is also a fairly large cattle population. Besides, there is a concentration of the Chammar community in Challakere, Jagalur, Davangere, Doddasiddavanahalli and a few other places. These factors indicate that it might be possible to organise the tanning and leather-stitching industry on modern lines in some selected centres in the district. The availability of good quality clay holds some prospects for the establishment of units making potteryware, distemper and some varieties of paints. A sizeable area in the district is devoted to coconut cultivation. Coconut husk, which is at present used as fuel, can be converted into fibre and utilised for the manufacture of scrubbing brushes.

A study of the items of import into the district also indicates that there is some scope for the establishment of small units for the manufacture of builders' hardware, Mangalore tiles, leather goods and furniture. Some of the other industries which could be started in the district relate to mixed fertilisers, sponge rubber chappals, heat-releasing transformers, elastic tapes, tyre-retreading, automobile battery assembly and servicing and cement products.

The Department of Mines and Geology has investigated the quality of the ore and reserve of deposits of pyrites at Ingladhal. The total length of the ground indicated by the geophysical survey and tested by diamond drilling is about 2,000 feet. The width of the ore body over this, as indicated by drilling, is taken at 20 feet on an average. It gives a total surface area of 40,000 square feet, capable of yielding five lakh tons for 100 feet of depth. Since the ore is likely to extend farther deep, a further quantity of 30 lakh tons is estimated as indicated ore. The average sulphur content of the run of mine ore analyses between 25 and 30 per cent, which can be improved by crushing and beneficiation. During an

excavation, considerable quantity of marginal ore, analysing between 10 and 20 per cent of sulphur content, is also likely to be available for crushing and beneficiation. Tests carried out at the National Metallurgical Laboratory have indicated that it is possible to beneficiate and upgrade the ore to yield material having a sulphur content of 45 per cent.

Per capita Income

The index of development is the *per capita* income, because it reflects the average economic standard of the population. In 1960-61, the *per capita* income in the district was Rs. 285 as compared to Rs. 245 in Bangalore district, Rs. 358 in North Kanara and Rs. 558 in Coorg. The *per capita* income of the whole State was Rs. 289 which was less than the national average. The *per capita* income of Chitradurga district was thus lower than both the State and national averages. But with the increasing tempo of development under the Five-Year Plans, it is expected that the income would rise considerably by the end of the Fourth Plan.

Taking food production as a whole, the district is normally surplus in jowar and ragi and deficit in rice. The basic nutritional minimum requirement of an adult per day is estimated at 18 ounces. But the entire food production in the district is not sufficient for the million and odd population at the rate of the national nutritional minima. Even with the present 12 ounces, the food-grains grown in the district are insufficient. With the double-cropping methods and the increased irrigational facilities afforded by the Bhadra channel waters, the food production is expected to go up. Several intensive cultivation methods have been initiated to help the district to grow more food and thereby meet the nutritional requirement of the people.

In view of the available facilities and resources, it is possible to achieve an accelerated economic growth in the district, if an increased investment of Rs. 67 *per capita* per annum is achieved. The avenues for mobilising additional financial resources are taxation to a reasonable extent, growth of public enterprises and small savings and economy in expenditure. Planning is a sure method of economic growth and if this is sustained by the interest evinced by the people to exploit all potentialities, the district can become self-sufficient.

Communications

Communications play an important part in the economic well-being of the people. In this respect, Chitradurga district has shown good progress during the recent decades. In the year 1930, there existed in all about 495 miles of roads. This had increased to about 1,606 miles in 1965.

No new railway lines have been added in recent years. The Bangalore—Poona metre gauge line runs for about 61 miles in the district, together with another 21 miles of branch line from

Chikkajajur to Chitradurga. The line from Chitradurga to Rayadurg has been surveyed and there is a persistent demand for construction of this line.

Price levels

In any study of the economic condition of a particular area, the price level is an important factor. The standard of living of the people is reflected on the price line and fluctuations in the commodity prices greatly upset the even tenor of life. Even during the last century, the State Government kept a watch on the fluctuations in the market prices and in the year 1866 a detailed statement of the prices of commodities was published in the *Mysore Gazette,* under the Kannada caption *Nirakpatti* or current prices. Each district had to send fortnightly reports to Government on the current prices. An abstract was made and embodied in an official publication entitled " Retail prices of some principal articles of food in Mysore " which was first published in March 1901.

Price fluctuations in the district are noticed with the variations of the seasons. Due to periodical near-famine conditions occurring in the district, the prices of principal commodities had a tendency to rise with short-falls and non-availability. The purchasing power of the rupee tended to fall beginning with this century and the inflationary spiral noticed at present is the highest ever recorded. Various reasons have been attributed to the fall in the purchasing power of the rupee, the chief reason being the general inflationary tendency all over the country due to various causes. The increase in population at the rate of two per cent per year and the shortfall in the production of food-grains have all tended to spiral up the prices with all the evil effects of a fall in living standards. It is a question now of making both ends meet and there is a persistent demand to hold the price-line.

During the years 1886 to 1890, the average quantity of rice sold per rupee was 13.51 seers, ragi 30.96 seers and jowar 26.90 seers. But from 1901 to 1905, the prices registered an upward trend on account of scarcity and other disturbed seasonal conditions. Rice, ragi and jowar sold at 10.35 seers, 24.40 seers and 14.90 seers per rupee respectively. Prices fluctuated much with the onset of the First World War. During 1917, the quantity sold per one rupee was, rice 7.34 seers, ragi 17.68 seers and jowar 15.42 seers. The end of the First World War did not improve matters. In 1919-20, the quantity of those commodities sold per rupee fell to a large extent. Rice was sold at 4.21 seers per rupee, ragi 7.55 seers and jowar 8.33 seers. The price-line was definitely held during the subsequent years and in 1923-24, the prices quoted were rice 4.70 seers, ragi 8.51 seers and jowar 8.33 seers per rupee, respectively. The principal staple commodities of the people in the district of Chitradurga are ragi and jowar.

The district of Chitradurga mainly depends on the south-west monsoon or in the local parlance *mungar* rains. Whenever there is a copious fall of rain, the harvests are good and prices have a tendency to fall. During 1910-11, there was a fall in prices due in a large measure to the favourable seasonal conditions and to the good harvests of the year. During the next three years, there was a general rise in the prices owing to the failure of the *mungar* rains.

During 1916-17, the prices of ragi and Bengal-gram, however, remained stationary in Chitradurga district. In 1919-20, there was a slight rise in the prices of rice and ragi and an appreciable fall in the price of jowar. The prices were stable in 1920-21.

Fall in prices

The world-wide depression which set in during the closing months of 1929 led to a steep fall in prices. In 1930-31, rice in Chitradurga was quoted at Rs. 14-8-0 per 100 seers, ragi at Rs. 4-12-0 and jowar at Rs. 5-8-0. A rupee fetched nearly 7 seers of rice and 20 seers of ragi. This phenomenal downward trend in prices continued till 1936 after which the prices again showed a slight upward trend. In 1935-36, the price of rice in Chitradurga was Rs. 14 per palla, ragi Rs. 5 per palla and jowar Rs. 0-4-0 a palla. This trend continued till 1938 and prices shot up on the declaration of the Second World War in September 1939. The price trend was largely due to the speculators and hoarders who held back large quantities of foodgrains to reap a rich gain afterwards.

The Statistical Abstract of Mysore published by the Commissioner of Economic Development and Planning gives figures prevailing in the early war years. In 1940-41, the price of rice in Chitradurga was Rs. 15-12-0 per palla, ragi Rs. 5-6-0 per palla and jowar Rs. 7-0-0 per palla. Steep rise was noticed by 1944-45 when the war came to an end. In 1944-45, the price of rice was Rs. 29 per palla, ragi Rs. 13-12-0 per palla and jowar Rs. 14-4-0 per palla.

Control measures

Apprehending rise in prices of staple commodities, the Government had introduced price control measures during the war years under the provisions of the Defence of India Act. Foodgrains trade was based on licensing. It was found both by economists and administrators that mere control on prices would not do but there should be stricter control on supplies. Large reserve stocks of grains were built to stabilise prices. For this purpose, the Mysore Government introduced the Food Grains Procurement Order which made the growers part with a certain quantity of their stock compulsorily. As the intensity of war prolonged, the prices in the market registered a steep rise when the Government introduced rationing of rice, ragi, sugar, etc., in urban areas and

small towns. The whole trade in rice was the monopoly of the Government.

It was believed that with the termination of the World War, the food situation would ease but these hopes were shattered. The district passed through a difficult period. Prices which were somewhat stationary in 1945 began to rise again. With the growth of population and increased urbanisation, people who were habituated to ragi and jowar began to substitute them with rice to a certain extent. This factor also contributed to the rise of price of rice.

Rise in Prices

In 1952, all control measures were abolished in regard to rice, ragi, jowar and other commodities, but the free flow of commodities into the market did not register any appreciable reduction in the prices. By the end of 1955, prices of foodgrains again started rising steeply.

The prices in January 1960 quoted authoritatively by the Regulated Market Committees of the district were rice Rs. 64 per palla, ragi Rs. 40 per palla and jowar Rs. 37 per palla. In the succeeding months of the year, these prices fluctuated in spite of remedial measures like curbs on credit, zonal control and buffer stocks in Government godowns.

After 1964, the prices of principal food commodities began to rise further with the result that the consumers began to experience a great difficulty. Since the winter of 1964, and throughout 1965, the prices quoted for rice, jowar, ragi, chillies, groundnut oil and pulses were considerably high. Controlled distribution was resorted to in selected urban areas of the State in respect of the staple commodities. The whole-sale prices of certain essential commodities in the Chitradurga district, in 1964-65, were as follows:

Rice fine, per quintal, Rs. 71 to 80, medium quality Rs. 65 to 70, coarse variety Rs. 45 to 50, wheat Rs. 55 to 60, jowar Rs. 60 to 75, ragi Rs. 80 to 100, tur dhal Rs. 80 to 110 and groundnut oil Rs. 300 to 350.

The Government have made continuous efforts to hold the price-line. Because of the rise in prices of food-grains and other articles, the people have found it rather difficult to make both ends meet and this has a retarding influence on the standard of living.

Wages—Urban

The belief that wages chase prices is true to a certain extent. Whenever prices of essential commodities rise due to economic pressure, there is a demand for more wages. Wages are generally determined having regard to the price index and are paid piecemeal or in a lumpsum monthly. Wages are paid for casual labour and

common rates are paid for monthly work. The urban wage-earners are classified according to their calling like the labourer, porter, domestic servant, watchman, gardener, wood-cutter, carpenter, blacksmith and barber.

In the old days, immediately after the termination of the First World War and the years preceding the Second World War, the daily wages for unskilled and skilled labour varied from district to district in the State. In 1923-24, unskilled labour was paid in the district of Chitradurga at annas four to rupee one and the skilled labour at annas eight to rupees two. Looking back to the closing years of the last century, one could get a picture of how the wages stood when the price-line of commodities was the lowest on record. In 1893, the unskilled labour in Chitradurga district was paid annas two to six per day and skilled labour from annas eight to rupee one per day. During the period of thirty years, the wages got doubled due to changes in economic structure.

Increase in wages

From 1893 to 1916, the minimum rate of wages for skilled labour rose by 50 per cent in some districts of Mysore while it remained almost stationary in Chitradurga. But after 1916, the wages registered an increase and in 1923-24, it was anywhere from annas eight to Rs. 2 for skilled labour per day, as already mentioned.

The wages of skilled labour are not strictly controlled by the usual theory of supply and demand and rest chiefly on relative factors as obtaining in the adjacent parts. But the basis of unskilled labour rests solely on the local rate of wages and is not subject to competition.

In these days of high costs, the rates of wages are fairly high. The urban wages are about 75 per cent higher than those of the ordinary agricultural labour. The domestic servants, watchmen and other menials are paid monthly and sometimes with or without food. In Chitradurga, a common house-hold servant or a watchman in a factory gets Rs. 45 to Rs. 60 a month. The casual wage for a porter who carries a load for a length of about a mile is usually fifty paise and sometimes rupee one per maund.

In some places of the district, the domestic servants are paid about Rs. 25 a month with two meals a day. They have to work about ten hours a day.

For skilled labour like carpenters or blacksmiths, the daily wages are Rs. 4 to Rs. 6 a day. Motor drivers are paid Rs. 75 to Rs. 100 a month while lorry drivers are paid Rs. 100 to Rs. 125. Tailors quote various prices for preparing garments and in Chitradurga these are cheaper than in Bangalore. The municipal scavengers are paid between Rs. 40 to Rs. 60 a month. The barber's

charges are twenty-five paise for a shave and the usual rate for hair-cut is seventy-five paise.

All these rates are liable to fluctuations. When the prices of staple commodities rise, wages paid for services tend to increase proportionately.

Wages —Rural

In the past, the wages of agricultural labourers were subject to no regulation whatsoever. The Government instituted remedial measures and fixed minimum wages for agricultural labour. The traditional occupations of village carpenter, blacksmith, well-sinker, weaver and the like are based on village self-sufficiency and the services of these people are being made use of by the agricultural population on a traditional basis, sometimes the payment being in kind. Unlike the urban occupations, the rural occupations are generally seasonal and temporary. This results in the choice of more than one occupation.

Since the introduction of "grow more food" schemes and increased incentives to agriculture, the entire labour in the fields is being paid in cash. The rates vary from Rs. 1.25 to Rs. 1.75 a day. Skilled workers are paid Rs. 2.50 to Rs. 3.50 a day.

The skilled carpenter in villages gets Rs. 3 to Rs. 4 a day, while the cobbler gets Rs. 1.25 to Rs. 1.75 a day and the blacksmith from Rs. 2.25 to Rs. 2.75.

For weeding, reaping and harvesting, an individual is paid Re. 1 to Rs. 1.37 a day. For ploughing, a wage of Rs. 1.25 to Rs. 1.75 is generally accepted.

The men do heavy manual work while the lighter side of the task is managed by women. Casual labourers are employed on daily wage basis and are paid in cash.

Standard of living

In this section of the chapter, an attempt has been made to determine the standard of living of the people from the days when the district was restored to the Wodeyars. Buchanan in his travel notes has given a graphic description of the condition of the people towards the close of the 18th century. He says "Many farmers in every part of the country are so poor that they cannot stock a farm of one plough. A man who keeps three or four ploughs is a wealthy person. Wages are extremely low." The remarks of Buchanan indicate the then prevailing low standard of living of the people of this district also.

After 1800 A.D. when a settled Government was in office, ameliorative measures were introduced to raise the standard of the masses. Before 1800, the ravages committed by invading troops

laid the country to the north of old Mysore bare. Several districts formerly prosperous, suffered heavily, due to the incessant ravages.

In 1834, the state of things improved to a certain extent. In 1861-62, the revenues of the State reached a crore of rupees. The condition of the people improved in many respects. At the time of the British occupation in 1831, the people in the district lived mostly in rural areas. Urbanisation had just set in. The number of people engaged in urban occupations rose by 50 per cent during a period of 30 years from 1831 to 1861. The new occupational pattern resulted in better wages and most of the wage-earners were above want. Except in periods of scarcity when the prices of foodgrains rose, the consumer was generally not hit hard because there was a sort of self-sufficiency in rural areas.

But with the outbreak of the Second World War, the hard hit individual was of the middle-class and the poorer sections. The low-income group and especially those with fixed incomes suffered greatly due to price-rise.

Higher cost of living

In the district, the bulk of the population cannot by any means be called wealthy. Apart from a few who are mill owners, large-scale exporters and importers, the majority are poor by modern standards. The cost of living in Chitradurga district is not readily available. However, the index figures for the State as a whole furnish a rough guide. Form 1943 and onwards, there was a steep rise in the cost of living. Taking 1939 as the base year, in 1943, the food stuffs registered a rise to 306 and the general cost of living rose to 315. In 1950, the cost of living rose to 450. In 1959-60, it was somewhere in the neighbourhood of 498 and continued to show an upward trend in 1964-65. The price increase in food articles affected the standard of living. It has been estimated that in the pre-war years, a rupee could purchase annas 16 (equal to the present 100 paise) worth of commodities. But in the year 1965, the same rupee value had fallen to about 19 naye paise. It is thus seen that an individual who in 1965 was getting a rupee a day was as good as a man who got 3 annas a day in the pre-war period.

To obviate the difficulties of the enhanced cost of living, the Government and many private employing bodies instituted a scheme of dearness or high-price allowances. This is being continued even now on an enhanced scale.

But the picture is not altogether gloomy. Some sections of the population in the district like skilled personnel, labourers and artisans are earning better wages. There is full-employment for those people. There is even a dearth of skilled personnel. The introduction of prohibition has been a blessing to many members

of the poorer classes and they are said to be saving some money from their incomes which otherwise would have gone for drinking alcoholic beverages. It may be said that the increased expenses of the fixed salary groups are not as much compensated by the high-price allowances. Many of the middle-class groups have run into debt with a possible loss in standard of living.

In the urban areas, the middle-classes are the worst hit. Under the existing commodity prices, there is hardly any margin of income over expenditure, with the result that they often have to square up the deficit by borrowing.

But many producers of agricultural commodities have comparatively a better standard of living. The increased prices they obtained for their produce have helped them to clear away debts.

The rural electrification schemes and the improved transport have changed the pattern of life in rural areas. Now many villages in the district are lit by electricity and are also on the transport bus routes. Many villagers now can afford to have modern amenities. In short, it may be said that the picture of village life has now considerably changed.

Employment Exchange

In the work of assessing the employment potential and assisting employment seekers in getting the right type of jobs suited to them and the employers in securing the right type of personnel, the Employment Exchange plays a notable role. In the beginning, the Exchanges confined their activities to the public sector. But later on, the regulations were amended so as to bring private enterprises also under their purview. As per the Compulsory Notification of Vacancies Act, 1959, a statutory obligation is now cast on private employers employing more than 25 workers to notify all vacancies, carrying a salary of Rs. 60 and above per month, to the Exchanges. However, there is no binding on them to fill up the vacancies through the Exchanges.

It was only on 23rd June, 1959, that a District Employment Exchange was opened in Davangere to serve the needs of this district. Before that (from June 1956) the Bellary District Employment Exchange exercised jurisdiction over Chitradurga district also.

The following table indicates the number of applicants registered and the number who secured employment through the Employment Exchange in the district :

STATEMENT SHOWING THE NUMBER OF APPLICANTS REGISTERED IN AND NUMBER OF PERSONS WHO SECURED EMPLOYMENT THROUGH THE DISTRICT EMPLOYMENT EXCHANGE, CHITRADURGA, FROM 1959 TO 1965.

Year	No. of applicants registered			No. of persons who secured jobs		
	Men	*Women*	*Total*	*Men*	*Women*	*Total*
1959 (from 23rd June)	2,815	103	2,918	186	6	192
1960 ..	3,586	340	3,926	336	23	359
1961 ..	3,995	430	4,425	707	36	743
1962 ..	4,399	370	4,769	973	98	1,071
1963 ..	4,402	442	4,844	675	95	770
1964 ..	4,436	574	5,010	624	85	709
1965 ..	5,789	628	6,417	787	102	889
Total ..	29,422	2,887	32,309	4,288	445	4,733

Separate categorisation of the level of employment secured in different occupations has not been maintained and a survey is not yet made to assess the employment potential in each sector. The Exchanges have merely to call for applications and wait till demands are made on them to point out as to who is best qualified and experienced for the job. The Exchanges are thus clearing houses for employment-seekers.

Community Development Programme

"Community Development" is a phrase which has gained wide currency after India attained independence. In the advanced countries, it meant activities of the people in local groups and communities, wherein they gathered together over common specialised interests and through which they found democratic expression for their energy and aspirations. In the under-developed countries, the concept has grown beyond the borders of specialisation. The community development programme is one of the most significant development programmes for improving rural life under conditions of democratic planning. The basic principle of this programme as enunciated by the Planning Commission is as follows:—

"Community development is the method and rural extension the agency through which the Five-Year Plan seeks to initiate a process of transformation of the social and economic life of the villagers".

This programme makes a comprehensive approach to the social and economic aspects of life of the rural population and includes, within its scope, activities relating to agriculture, co-operation, animal husbandry, minor irrigation, health and sanitation, social education and village industries. It enables the rural folk to put forward their efforts through village institutions organised on the basis of self-help and co-operation. The main emphasis in the programme is on increased agricultural production. Attention is also being given to the development of cottage and small-scale industries as a means of providing fuller and increasing employment, the development of co-operatives, the promotion of panchayats as the basic institutions for Local Self-Government, improved village communications, promotion of education, health and recreation in the villages and the provision of improved techniques and designs for rural housing and social education. In the beginning, community projects, each covering about 300 villages and a population of about two lakhs were launched. This created a great enthusiasm among the rural population to work for their economic and social uplift, on a programme of aided self-help. The demand for extension of the programme to other areas also increased. It was felt necessary to give meaning to this newly aroused consciousness, despite the country's limited resources of finance and trained personnel. The Government, therefore, decided to introduce another programme called the National Extension Service which was

somewhat less intensive in character. Thus, the programme was carried out in three stages, *viz*., the N.E.S. Stage, the C.D. Stage and the Post-Intensive Stage. The N.E.S. Stage extended over three years during which a relatively less comprehensive programme was executed within a budget ceiling of Rs. 4 lakhs and with a limited staff. This was followed by another three years of intensive community development with a fuller complement of staff and a provision of Rs. 8 lakhs. Thereafter, the Block entered the Post-Intensive stage, when only Rs. 30,000 were annually available.

Revised Pattern

The programme was rephased from 1st April 1958. The distinction between the three phases of operation, *viz*., N.E.S., C.D. and the Post-Intensive was abolished. The new programme envisaged an intensive development over a longer period. In order that the development activities in the rural areas are intensive, continuous and of substantial duration, the programme is now being implemented in two stages, *viz*., Stage I and Stage II of five years' duration. As a result of the revised pattern, a staggering of the plan coverage was also made. The new arrangement implied an automatic conversion of the existing N.E.S. Blocks into C.D. Blocks with an increased budget provision. The funds provided for the first and second stages are Rs. 12 lakhs and Rs. 5 lakhs respectively for each Block. Stage I is the intensive development phase in which the people's participation is promoted as the method connected with the formulation of plans for their respective areas.

The success attained in Stage I will be the evidence of growth and functioning of self-reliant rural communities. Accordingly, Stage II, which is the Post-Intensive Phase, has been designed to intensify the operation of the method of community development in its fuller amplitude and the comparatively small schematic budget provides only for such items in which the emphasis is more on community development rather than on developmental programmes as such. In view of the renewed emphasis on agricultural production, each new Block allotted had a one-year period of pre-extension activity exclusively in the field of agriculture. Provision has been made for one Block Development Officer, six Extension Officers, one Social Education Organiser, one Mukhya Sevika, ten trained gramasevaks and two gramasevikas for each Block.

In consonance with the all-India programme, the community development programme in Mysore was started on 2nd October 1952. The first series of N.E.S. Blocks were started on 2nd October 1953 in as many as 17 taluks and in Chitradurga district, Harihar was the first taluk to have a Block. The next taluk to be covered by the National Extension Service Block was Holalkere followed by the Jagalur Block, which were started on 2nd October 1954 and 1st April 1956 respectively. The Molakalmuru Block was opened on 2nd October 1957 and the next two Blocks to be

inaugurated were Davangere and Hosadurga which were opened in October 1956 and April 1958 respectively. Afterwards, the programme was extended to Challakere, Chitradurga and Hiriyur. The Table on the next page gives particulars of date of starting and expenditure incurred for the period from 1961-62 to 1964-65 in respect of each Block in the district :—

STATEMENT SHOWING EXPENDITURE INCURRED BY COMMUNITY DEVELOPMENT BLOCKS IN CHITRADURGA DISTRICT FROM 1961-62 TO 1964-65

Name of Block	*Date of inauguration*	*Block headquarters*	*Agriculture and Animal Husbandry*	*Irrigation and Reclamation*	*Health and Sanitation*	*Education*	*Social Education*	*Communications*	*Rural Arts and Crafts*	*Rural Housing*
		Rs.	Rs.	Rs.	Rs.	Rs.	Rs.	Rs.	Rs.	Rs.
Chitradurga I ..	1-10-1960	2,30,346	42,405	1,04,170	60,403	19,777	17,976	650	16,124	17,256
Chitradurga II ..	1-4-1961	1,42,144	32,057	..	28,104	19,402	11,066	1,950	16,395	93,752
Challakere I ..	1-4-1960	2,73,430	40,301	..	63,718	16,150	26,605	6,529	19,699	28,906
Challakere II ..	1-4-1960	1,33,178	30,882	10,562	32,998	11,490	8,837	17,842	24,145	17,842
Hiriyur I ..	1-10-1962	91,736	15,521	..	..	5,000	2,656	3,000	4,803	..
Hiriyur II ..	1-10-1962	79,561	18,619	..	..	4,539	4,500	2,917	4,794	..
Molakalmuru ..	2-10-1957	2,18,492	28,963	61,652	32,033	21,280	28,750	13,983	45,982	10,184
Jagalur ..	1-4-1956	89,131	34,349	93	63,034	17,313	33,004	27,049	31,250	12,768
Davangere ..	2-10-1956	11,547	8,113	5,547	19,417	15,345	11,396	8,093	12,283	16,586
Holalkere ..	2-10-1954	1,71,434	29,883	9,119	35,919	24,425	27,093	25,484	14,142	6,166
Hosadurga ..	1-4-1958	30,303	26,400	1,34,250	34,579	26,833	40,017	43,951	31,263	64,045
Harihar ..	2-10-1953	2,38,564	30,777	37,860	56,317	1,20,414	59,024	83,082	1,06,537	1,91,598

CHAPTER X

GENERAL ADMINISTRATION

Introduction

IN the beginning of the century, public administration in the State largely consisted in providing security of person and property and realising the revenue necessary to maintain several departments. The Police, Prisons and Judiciary represented the security departments, while Land Revenue, Excise, Registration and Stamps formed the main revenue part of the administration. The Public Works Department was an important limb of the Government. With the passage of time and gradual introduction of liberal measures, nation-building departments such as Education, Health, Agriculture, Industries and Commerce, Co-operation attained growing importance. After the achievement of independence, continuous efforts are being made to promote all-round welfare of the people at a quicker pace.

Deputy Commissioner

In the general pattern of the district administration, the Deputy Commissioner is the custodian of Government property in land (including trees and water), wherever situated, and at the same time the guardian of the interests of members of the public in land, in so far as the interests of Government in land have been conceded to them. All land, wherever situated, whether put to agricultural or other uses, is liable to payment of land revenue except in so far as it may be expressly exempted by a special contract (*vide* Section 45 of the Land Revenue Code). Such land revenue is of three kinds: (1) agricultural assessment, (2) non-agricultural assessment and (3) miscellaneous. The Deputy Commissioner's duties are in respect of (1) fixation, (2) collection and (3) accounting of all such land revenue. The collection of land revenue rests with the Deputy Commissioner, who has to see that the revenue due is recovered punctually and with the minimum of coercion and that the collections are properly credited and accounted for. The Deputy Commissioner is also responsible for the collection of fees and taxes under various other Acts in respect of irrigation, stamps, courts, tolls on roads and bridges, prohibition, etc. He is also responsible for the collection of dues declared as arrears of land revenue.

The Revenue District of Chitradurga has been divided into two Sub-Divisions, with headquarters at Chitradurga and Davangere, respectively, in charge of officers who are in the cadre of Assistant Commissioners. In addition to these two officers, the Deputy Commissioner is assisted in his office work by two officers of the rank of Assistant Commissioners designated as Headquarters Assistant and District Development Assistant and one officer of the rank of Tahsildar styled as Gazetted Office Assistant. Besides these officers, there is a Food Assistant as also a District Treasury Officer assisting the Deputy Commissioner.

The revenue administration of the district vests in the Deputy Commissioner under the provisions of the Mysore Land Revenue Code, 1964. He is also the District Magistrate under the Code of Criminal Procedure (Mysore Amendment), 1965, and is in charge of the administration of law and order in the district. In addition to his duties as the revenue head of the district, the Deputy Commissioner holds *ex-officio* posts such as District Registrar with power of supervision over all the Sub-Registrars, Chairman, District Development Council for general supervision over developmental activities, Chairman, District Advisory Committee on Employment and Chairman, Regulated Market Committees located at Davangere, Challakere, Hiriyur, Hosadurga, Harihar and Chitradurga.

As the head of the revenue administration of the district, the Deputy Commissioner exercises all the powers under the Mysore Land Revenue Code, 1964. In addition, he exercises powers under the provisions of various other Acts such as the Land Acquisition Act, Mysore Tenancy Act, Mysore Irrigation Act, Mysore Religious and Charitable Endowments Act, Mysore Land Improvements and Taccavi Loans Act, Mysore Agricultural Income-Tax Act, Mysore Village Panchayats and Local Boards Act, 1958, and the Town Municipalities Act. The Deputy Commissioner is the chief executive authority under the Mysore Police Act, 1963, and his functions as District Magistrate are governed by the Code of Criminal Procedure (Mysore Amendment), 1965. In short, he is the pivot of the district administration and exercises direct and indirect supervision over all departments at the district level. He is directly responsible to the Divisional Commissioner, Bangalore Division.

As regards the control over the essential commodities, the Deputy Commissioner is enjoined to give effect to the notifications issued by the Government from time to time in respect of essential commodities.

Besides being the head of the Revenue Department, the Deputy Commissioner is also the co-ordinating authority among various officers of the other departments in the district except the

judiciary. He presides over the District Co-ordination Committee meetings to which all the officers in the district except those of the Judicial Department are invited.

The Deputy Commissioner is also the *ex-officio* Chairman of the District Development Council. This Council has to supervise and co-ordinate the development activities of all the departments in the district and of the Taluk Development Boards, which help in the implementation of the development programmes.

During the First Five-Year Plan period, the National Extension Service was set up through which improvements of all aspects of village life were undertaken. Under this scheme, the Deputy Commissioner is responsible for the supervision of the departmental activities of the Community Development Scheme. He has to possess a clear picture of the normal working of several departments at the district level so as to evolve an integrated approach to the various developmental activities.

Other Revenue Officers

Assistant Commissioners.—The two Assistant Commissioners at Chitradurga and Davangere are in direct charge of the revenue administration in their respective sub-divisions. These two officers are responsible to the Deputy Commissioner. In all revenue matters, these Sub-Divisional Assistant Commissioners are appellate authorities over the orders passed by the Tahsildars. They exercise such of the powers as are imposed and conferred by the Deputy Commissioner under the Land Revenue Act.

Tahsildars.—There are nine Tahsildars in charge of the nine taluks in the district. Their duties and powers as Taluk Revenue Officers are such as are specially imposed or conferred upon them under the Mysore Land Revenue Code, 1964, and rules framed thereunder. The Tahsildars are the key-men in the revenue set-up of the different revenue taluks.

There are 30 hoblies in the district and each hobli is under the charge of a Revenue Inspector. The Revenue Inspectors assist the Tahsildar in the revenue administration of the taluk.

Village Administration

Until recently, the village establishment consisted of five hereditary offices, *i.e.*, those of Patel (village headman), Shanbhogue (village accountant), Talari (village scout), Thoti (village watchman) and Nirganti (distributor of water from irrigation tanks). The remuneration of the Patel and the Shanbhogue consisted of Inam lands subject to *jodi* or full assessment and cash allowances called *potgi* on the basis of the land revenue demand. The other village servants received a certain quantity of grain from each cultivating raiyat and certain cash payments

from non-agriculturists, in addition to the remuneration by rent-free or lightly assessed lands.

These village offices, which were held hereditarily, were abolished by the Mysore Village Offices Abolition Act, 1961, which came into force throughout the State on 1st February 1963. Under the provisions of the Act, Village Accountants have been already appointed as full-time Government servants on a salary basis. They are also liable to be appointed as *ex-officio* Panchayat Secretaries, in addition to their duties relating to revenue matters. They have to perform such other duties as may be entrusted to them by the Deputy Commissioner and also carry out instructions of the Tahsildar and Revenue Inspector, in so far as they relate to the discharge of their duties as Village Accountants.

The present incumbents of the posts of Patels are being, however, continued for the time being, without hereditary rights and they get an annual remuneration equivalent to the *Potgi*, which they were receiving prior to the abolition of their hereditary offices.

Executive Engineer

The Executive Engineer stands a little apart. Since his work is purely technical, he is not directly subordinate to the Deputy Commissioner though in a sense he plays a part subsidiary to the general administration of the district, of which the Deputy Commissioner is the head, and he is expected to help the Deputy Commissioner whenever required to do so. For example, the Deputy Commissioner can ask the Executive Engineer to investigate the extent of utility of certain minor irrigation works. In times of scarcity, the Executive Engineer, in consultation with the Deputy Commissioner, has to draw up plans and programmes of relief works suitable for scarcity areas and to execute them.

Police Superintendent

Law and Order.—The other department which is next in importance on the executive side is the police, headed by the Superintendent of Police who has his headquarters at Chitradurga. The Superintendent of Police and the police force of the district are under the control of the Deputy Commissioner in so far as their functions regarding the maintenance of law and order are concerned. He is assisted in his work by two Deputy Superintendents of Police in charge of the two Sub-Divisions, seven Circle Inspectors, 29 Sub-Inspectors, 2 Assistant Sub-Inspectors, 133 Head Constables and 599 Police Constables, one Reserve Circle Inspector, 2 Reserve Police Sub-Inspectors, 3 Assistant Reserve Police Sub-Inspectors, 25 Reserve Head Constables and 123 Reserve Police Constables.

District and Sessions Judge

Judicial.—The functions of the District and Sessions Judge have been described in the appropriate chapter on Law, Order and Justice (Chapter XII). He has a separate and independent sphere of work and as head of the judiciary in the district he

exercises appellate and supervisory powers over the subordinate judicial officers in the district. On the civil side, there is a Civil Judge at Chitradurga and a Munsiff each at Chitradurga and Davangere. For magisterial work in connection with criminal justice, there are two Ist Class Magistrates, one at Chitradurga and another at Davangere.

Other Officers

Other Officers at District-level.—The other district-level officers are mentioned below. It is unnecessary to describe their functions here as in the case of most of them, their designations give a fair idea of their functions, while the functions of others have been described in the relevant chapters.

The other officers in the district are:—

(1) Deputy Director of Public Instruction, Chitradurga Division.
(2) District Educational Officer.
(3) District Surgeon.
(4) District Health Officer.
(5) Deputy Director of Agriculture.
(6) District Officer, Animal Husbandry and Veterinary Services.
(7) Assistant Director of Industries and Commerce.
(8) Executive Engineer, Chitradurga Division.
(9) Executive Engineer, Davangere Division.
(10) Commercial Tax Officer.
(11) Deputy Registrar of Co-operative Societies.
(12) Assistant Superintendent of Fisheries.
(13) District Statistical Officer.
(14) Probation Officer, Davangere.
(15) Executive Engineer, Mysore State Electricity Board.
(16) Divisional Forest Officer.
(17) Depot Manager, Mysore Road Transport Corporation.
(18) District Employment Officer.
(19) District Horticultural Inspector.
(20) District Publicity Officer.
(21) District Social Welfare Officer.
(22) Regional Transport Officer.
(23) District Labour Officer.

The Central Government has its officers in the district for the collection of income-tax and excise duties, administration of postal, telegraph and telephone services and Railways. For purposes of income-tax, the entire district is administered by the Income-Tax Office situated in Davangere.

Divisional Commissioner

In the general administration of the district above the Deputy Commissioner, the Divisional Commissioner plays a prominent role not only in the administration of land revenue but also in the

activities of other departments. The Divisional Commissioner, Bangalore Division, exercises jurisdiction over Chitradurga district. He is enjoined to speed up all developmental activities initiated by Government. He acts as a link between the State Government and the district authorities in pushing forward public welfare activities. The Divisional Commissioner often tours in the district and supervises the general activities of all development departments. In view of the developmental activities under the Five-Year Plans and the tempo of the Community Development and National Extension Services, the role of the Divisional Commissioner has assumed added importance. Floods, famines, scarcity—all demand his earnest attention. He holds occasional co-ordination meetings to step up the tempo of developmental activities.

CHAPTER XI

REVENUE ADMINISTRATION

Early History of Assessment

IN any scheme of financial administration, the revenue from land forms an important factor. Various theories have been evolved in the matter of land revenue assessment, the most important of them being the fixation of a suitable figure based on the quality of the soil, the crops grown, the irrigation facilities and so on. When the land yielded more, it was obligatory on the part of the cultivator to pay an increased assessment. As regards the ancient practices of land revenue assessment in Chitradurga district, some light is thrown from the available inscriptions, which give an insight into the procedure of measuring the land for purposes of assessment. In Ashoka's time, the provincial set-up was administered by a prince of the royal family who was assisted by *Mahamatras* or advisers These advisers were obliged to carry out the king's instructions in a manner suited to the peculiarities of the tract and to observe a prescribed procedure in the collection of taxes including the revenue from lands. The people willingly paid a share of their produce to the king in order to get the fruits of a benevolent administration in which their life and property remained secure. The Satakarni inscriptions point to the fact that a rope was used to measure the cultivated fields for determining the exact holdings. The various orders conveyed by the head of the State to the *Mahavallabham rajjukar* show that the *rajjukars* were officials in charge of collection of revenue. Dr. Buhler explains that the word *rajjukar* literally means the holder of the rope and his duty was to measure the fields for the proper fixation of assessment. The word *Shiristadar* is another such term, derived from the Persian word *Sar-i-ristadar*, which means one who holds the end of a rope to measure the fields. In the Mysore revenue administration, the *Sheristedar* is placed next to the Tahsildar and looks after taluk treasury.

In the old days, revenue affairs were managed by *Karnams* or revenue accountants. The method of realising revenue from lands was the only administrative problem of the civil Government under the various dynasties. Kadambaraya, with the assistance of his Prime Minister, Gopa Mantri, and Nagadeva Karnika, measured all the cultivated land within the confines of each village and

marked the boundaries in the early years of the Kadamba rule. This was the first occasion when cultivated land was surveyed for fixation of boundaries. After due measurement of all cultivated lands, Gopa Mantri enunciated the basis of revenue assessment as one grain from each of the *nava dhanya* or nine kinds of produce *viz.*, paddy, wheat, green gram, black gram, Bengal gram, jowar, cow gram, tur dhal and gingelly. All these put together were called one *nishka*. Ten of these *nishkas* formed a *phala* or *navtakke*. Sixty-four *phalas* equalled one *mana*. Twenty *manas* equalled a *kolaga*. Twenty *kolagas* or in some areas 40 or 60 *kolagas* formed a *khandaga*. Lands of the highest quality like the black soil, red soil or black soil mixed with yellow were classified for three separate rates of assessment. Black soils suitable for Bengal gram cultivation had to pay one *pagoda* for every 9½ *manas* of seed. Red soil land irrigated by wells was assessed at 9 *pagodas* for one *khandaga*. Garden lands growing coconuts, plantains, limes and other citrus varieties were called *agamas*. These lands were measured with a rod of 18 " lengths ". The " length " was determined by means of *mettu* (a man's foot measured so as to take in also half the right foot at the beginning and half the left foot at the end). This rod was called *Mana danda*. The square space measured out of such a rod gave enough land space for planting three arecanut trees with coconuts intermixed. For a thousand of such squares, the ruler's share was seven *pagodas*.

Under Vijayanagar rulers

The Chitradurga area later came under the sway of the Vijayanagar rulers, who (in the time of Krishnadevaraya and Achyutaraya) evolved a new revenue system calculated to improve the empire's finances without causing distress to agriculturists. The periodical publications of the *Rayarekhas* fixed the settlement, the boundaries of fields and customs duties and ordinances were issued as and when necessary. These orders were then transmitted to village headmen for purposes of preservation as records. Boundaries were marked in every village. Along with the growth of the Vijayanagar empire, the administrative system also developed. The revenues were reduced to a regular form, regulated by ordinances and later on a new system of accounts and management was introduced, calculated to improve the revenues of the empire. The extent of land was determined by the quantity of seed sown. For lands sown with one *kolaga* of seed, the rent payable was fixed at rates varying from three to ten Kantiraya Pagodas (one Kantiraya Pagoda equalled about three rupees) according to the nature of the soil. Land watered by *Kapile* wells was assessed in cash rent. Paddy lands irrigated by tanks had to pay one half of the produce. In some districts, the cultivators tendered one-third of the produce together with two or three pagodas in cash. In order to encourage cultivation of waste lands, a new system of incentives was offered, called *Bhumala gutta* or *Kala gutta*. The cultivators by agreement had to pay a stipulated sum for a term of years. Gardens were classified as *niravari* or wet lands and for these, rents were

collected in produce. The Vijayanagar rulers encouraged cultivation and also colonisation. Cultivators were given money advances to buy cattle, agricultural implements and other necessities. The Government spared no efforts in restoring tanks and irrigation channels that were in disuse. It also provided subsidy to sink wells.

The Vijayanagar kings evolved a new system of revenue hierarchy called the Barabaluthi, consisting of twelve village officials *viz.*, Shanbhogue, Gowda, Kammara, Badagi, Agasa, Panchangi, Nayinda, Madiga, Akkasale, Talari, Nirganti and Kumbara. In Kannada, the system was called Ayagar. These men were given a share of the crop for the efficient performance of their allotted tasks. All these offices were hereditary in character. In the revenue branch, the chief officer was the *Sarvadhikari* or *Athavane Parupathegar* who was to collect land revenue. The cultivable land was divided into three classes *viz.*, *Jirayati*, *Bagair-Jirayati* and *Khushbash*. From the brief description given above it will be observed that the revenue administration had advanced under the Vijayanagar kings to a high level of efficiency but this progress received a rude check as the empire itself crumbled after the battle of Rakkasa-Tangadgi in 1565 A.D. Among the vassal chiefs, who rose to power after the fall of Vijayanagar, the more important were the Paleyagars of Chitradurga.

Under Paleyagars

Under the Paleyagars, the main items of State revenue consisted of customs on goods movement, local taxes, *hullubanni*, lease amount on brick kilns, tobacco duty and *abkari*. During the reign of Bharamappa Nayaka, a new procedure of collecting revenue was evolved. Each year, every member of the royal household went on a pilgrimage to worship the deities, Uchangamma, Kalamma and other goddesses. In the places they visited, the *Talavar* of each village had to pay to the ruler, one ghee pot and a goat. The monarch used to wear the robes of a mendicant and collected from each Gowda of a village, one *varaha* as offering. On the auspicious day of *Vinayaka Chaturthi*, each head of a religious matha had to tender to the palace special cakes made of copra. The weavers had to tender to the palace one *noolu* for each loom per year. The rural folk, particularly the *syces*, had to go to Chitradurga and clean the palace stables. The village patels had to give to the palace stables ten head loads of fodder. From each village, two able bodied men had to do, in the confines of Chitradurga, some specific duties. The whole country, for purposes of revenue administration, was divided into a number of *hoblis*. These *hoblis* were administered by special officers who were the relatives of the ruler. The revenue department, the palace possessions and the management of the *batayi* system were all under one administration called the *Athavane Chavadi*. The village hierarchy consisted of the *Shekdar*, *Shanbhogue* and *Gowda* (Patel). The Paleyagars introduced a novel system called the

Begars, which was an adjunct to the revenue administration. For the men who formed the *Begar* wing, revenue-free land was specially given. The *Begars* carried out a number of duties which were helpful to the villagers. The evolution of the revenue system under Bharmappa Nayaka raised the revenues of this State by about 1¼ lakhs of rupees.

Under Haidar and Tipu

During the period of Haidar, no radical fiscal changes were made and the pattern evolved by Chikka Devaraja Wodeyar remained intact. In every taluk, *Harikars* were appointed to check the oppression of raiyats and to detect defalcations. But in Tipu Sultan's time, a new system was introduced. He divided his entire territory into *Tukadies* of 5,000 pagodas each and appointed officers for each *Tukadi* for the management of revenue. Twenty or thirty *Tukadies* were placed under an *Asuf*. At the head of Asuf Katcheries, a president was appointed. Tipu Sultan dispensed with the *Harikars* appointed by his father which act gave rise to needless oppression. The system of farming out villages to the highest bidder was also in vogue. The revenue regulation which Tipu Sultan issued contained little that was new.

Under Krishnaraja Wodeyar III

After the fall of Srirangapatna in 1799, Mysore State was restored to Sri Krishnaraja Wodeyar III and Purnaiya who was then the Dewan, tried to bring order out of the chaos into which the revenue system had fallen owing to frauds and also to the adverse claims set up by earlier rulers. The new Government proclaimed an unqualified remission of all balances of revenue and the restoration of the ancient Hindu rate of assessment on lands. The general land tenure consisted in the right of a tenant and his heirs to cultivate the field so long as they continued to pay the customary rent, the tenant having no right to alienate the land. When he ceased to cultivate it, the Government was free to confer the land on another. One of the first steps taken by Purnaiya to systematise the land revenue administration was a general measurement of fields called *Paimaish*. The work done was no doubt imperfect under the peculiar conditions of those days. He was able to fix a regular and adequate assessment of lands in some districts and in others he continued the old system with suitable modifications. In the district of Chitradurga, all the dry land owners paid a fixed assessment in cash calculated at about 1/3 of the gross produce. Wet lands paid nominally in kind about one half of the crop but generally discharged the revenue in cash at the specified rate prevailing in the district. The system of renting out villages to the highest bidder was abolished. The whole of the revenue was under the direct management of Government with *Subedars*, *Amildars* and *Parupathegars*. After the close of the Dewan-Regency, Sri Krishnaraja Wodeyar III assumed full powers. The first notable thing the ruler did was to reduce the land tax on sugarcane in Chitradurga. It was found that sugarcane fields were under a severe impost of rates varying from

ten to 72 pagodas per *Khandi*. Chitradurga became a Faujdari under his rule and he began to consolidate several taxes imposed by the Nayakas and allowed reductions wherever necessary.

At that time the land revenue assessment in Chitradurga was of a complicated nature with rates varying from a minimum of one anna to a maximum of Rs 9-4-11. The unit generally employed for assessing lands was the *Kudu* which was 3,200 square yards of dry land. The different rates of assessment were 465 in number all over the district which gave rise to all sorts of difficulties.

Under British Commission

During the early years of the British Commission, the land revenue system was brought back, as far as possible, to the condition in which it was left by Dewan Purnaiya. The British Commissioners gave serious thought to the land revenue problem and set about liberalising the system in all its varied details and vigilantly supervised its working, having regard not so much to a swelling of the revenues, but to make it as liberal as possible for the cultivators. All money rents which were exorbitant were lowered and the payment of the *Kist* was made easy. The prevailing system of exacting the *Kist* before the crops were harvested was abandoned and payments were allowed to be made in five instalments. In areas where the *batayi* system prevailed (equal sharing of the crop between the cultivators and Government) every effort was made by the Government to convert it into a money payment. Where, however, the *batayi* system could not be dispensed with, it was rid of most of its vexatious characteristics. The corrupt practices employed by the village servants were put an end to. The grain was divided before a body of influential men. The result of all these helpful measures was that the assessed revenue was collected without difficulty.

Preliminary Survey

Sir Mark Cubbon, the then British Chief Commissioner in Mysore, fully realised the need to have a scientific revenue survey and assessment and decided to carry it through. Before he set about the task of implementing this idea, he investigated thoroughly the existing tenures. The main tenures which were in existence in the district were the *Kandaya or Raiyatwari* tenure and the Inam tenure. All cultivable land was classified either as dry (Kushki), wet (Thari) and garden (Bagayat). The dry variety of land was sown with ragi and jowar depending mainly on the rainfall and the wet variety usually with paddy, sugarcane and other staple grains requiring irrigation facilities and the third variety was planted with coconut or arecanut plants. The last two, *viz.*, wet and garden lands, were irrigated with the aid of wells, tanks or *anicuts*. At the time of the initial survey and settlement, the land measures in the district were based on an ancient system, *i.e.*, on the area of land which could be cultivated with a given

quantity of seed. On dry land it was calculated as one *Khandi* or *Khandaga* of seed which would suffice to sow 64,000 square yards (13 acres, 8 guntas and 112 square yards of land). This represented a *Khandi* of dry land. On wet lands it was a *Khandi* of seed which enabled sowing in 10,000 square yards (2 acres, 2 guntas and 78 square yards). This was also called a *Khandi* of wet land. This basis of measurement gave rise to all sorts of bad practices and attendant fraud. Sir Mark Cubbon thought that this cumbersome land measurement must at all costs be done away with before a new scientific survey and settlement was ushered in. After a lengthy correspondence between the Mysore Commissioner and the Government of India, it was decided by the latter to introduce a regular system of survey and settlement. The Government thought that the Bombay system was cheaper than the Madras system and in 1863-64, a separate department was established to conduct survey and settlement under a Commissioner. The main objectives of the new survey and settlement were the regulation of the customary land tax so as to secure to the administration an adequate revenue, the progressive development of the agricultural resources of the country and the preservation of all proprietary and other rights connected with the land.

The system and the agency to be employed for introducing survey and settlement were settled and, in 1863, Mr. L. B. Bowring was appointed Commissioner. Having preferred the Bombay system, he addressed the Bombay Government to spare the services of Major Anderson to Mysore. He was then Superintendent of the Southern Mahratta Survey.

Initial steps

The first step in the introduction of survey and settlement in any taluk was the division of the village lands into fields, the definition of the limits of such fields by permanent works and the accurate measurement of the area of each field by chain and cross staff. The next step was the classification of the land. For this purpose, every variety of soil was referred to one of nine classes, such classes having a relative value in annas. In the Chitradurga tract, the deep black soils of a fine uniform texture were classified in the first order, and the red loam varieties in the second order. Each field was divided into a number of equal compartments and the soil of each compartment was dug up to a depth of 1½ cubits for purposes of examination. The class of the soil was then noted, having regard to the composition of the soil, its depth and the deteriorating influences, if any. The basis adopted for classification of irrigated lands was also under similar circumstances. The survey authorities specially noted the several factors affecting the class of water supply such as plentiful sources, channels conveying the water and other incidental details. When all the fields into which each village was divided had been classified, then the taluk

was ready for settlement. The villages in each taluk were divided into groups for which a uniform standard of assessment was to be fixed. In the grouping of villages, the climate, the position of that village in relation to markets and communications, the agricultural skill and the actual condition of the cultivators were the main factors for consideration. The maximum rates of assessment to be levied on each variety of cultivation in a group were then fixed. The average of the previous 20 years was generally adopted in the fixation of assessments, unless there were special reasons such as shrinkage of cultivation or decrease of population to justify a reduction. After determining the total assessment for the group of villages, the maximum assessment for each variety of cultivation was calculated by converting all lands into the equivalent of the 16 annas land. Once the maximum rate was fixed, the rates for individual fields were calculated having regard to their value in the anna scale.

From the foregoing account of the procedure adopted for introducing survey and settlement, it will be clear that the assessment levied in Mysore did not profess to be a specific share of the net or gross produce and that the main purpose of the survey and settlement was to distribute the burden of land revenue more equitably on the lands in the area having regard to the relative productivity of the lands.

Original Survey and Settlement

The original survey and settlement operations commenced in Harihar area in 1864-65. The highest maximum dry assessment levied as per original settlement was Rs. 3 per acre for the I Group and 8 annas per acre for the II and III Groups. These maximum rates were leviable only on the best dry lands valued at 16 annas and as the soil decreased in quality, the actual assessment levied was of the order of about 2 annas per acre. Thus the average rate of assessment was Re. 0-3-8 per acre in Hiriyur taluk after the original settlement. In other taluks, it ranged from Re. 0-3-8 to 10 annas per acre. The rates of assessment fixed during the original survey and settlement were guaranteed to be without enhancement for 30 years and they were revised after the expiry of the guarantee. Only the wet and garden lands were reclassified during the revision survey and settlement and the statute laid down that a revised settlement shall be fixed not with reference to improvements made from the private capital and resources during the currency of the original settlement but with reference to general considerations of the value of land, prices of produce and facilities of communication (*vide* Section 115 of the Land Revenue Code, 1888).

The initial revenue and survey settlement was introduced in Davangere in 1866. When the settlement operations were going on, Harihar was not a pucca taluk. The area determined then

was 2,41,588 acres dry, 3,711 acres wet and 1,650 acres garden lands.

In Chitradurga taluk, the first revenue settlement was introduced in 1867 and the revision settlement in 1905-1906. The cultivable area determined after the revision was 1,75,732 acres dry, 6,388 acres wet and 3,371 acres garden lands.

The settlement operations in the Hiriyur taluk were conducted during the years 1868 and 1869 and the revision settlement from 1904 to 1905. The cultivable area determined after the settlement was 1,89,900 acres dry, 5,117 acres wet and 8,093 acres garden lands.

The first revenue survey and settlement in Holalkere taluk was conducted in 1868 and the revision settlement during 1905-1906. The area under cultivation at the time was 15,574 acres dry, 4,850 acres wet and 3,386 acres garden lands.

In Hosadurga taluk, resurvey was conducted in 1908-1909 because the original survey had been completed in 1868 along with Holalkere taluk. The cultivable area determined after resurvey was 1,40,813 acres dry, 3,317 acres wet and 8,534 acres garden lands.

In 1867, survey and settlement was conducted in Jagalur taluk and the revision settlement in 1905-1906. The total area determined was 1,24,192 acres, out of which 1,20,404 acres were dry, 1,467 acres wet and 2,321 acres garden lands.

The revenue survey and settlement in Challakere taluk was introduced in 1872 and the revision settlement in 1906-1907. The area under cultivation at the time of the revision settlement was 1,63,481 acres dry, 6,784 acres wet and 12,639 acres garden lands.

Revenue survey and settlement in Molakalmuru taluk began in 1872 and the revision settlement during 1907-1908. The cultivable area determined then was 55,270 acres dry, 3,231 acres wet and 6,502 acres garden lands.

In 1921, a long-standing grievance of the cultivating classes was redressed. The landholders, who had lands under tank *atchkats*, had to pay wet assessment on their holdings even though the tank received insufficient supply of water. At the meetings of the Representative Assembly, this subject was being repeatedly pressed and the Government came to a decision that whenever in any tract not less than half the total cultivable area or *atchkat* was left uncultivated in any year, or if cultivated, did not yield more

than a quarter of the normal yield, the collection of half the assessment was to be postponed for a year and if similar conditions prevailed during the following year also, the suspended assessment was to be remitted. This measure was to some extent a departure from the established principles of survey and settlement as introduced in Mysore. In Mysore, the Bombay system of settlement was followed under which wet lands were classed with reference to the capacity of tanks which supplied them water for irrigation. The assessment on these tank *atchkat* lands was fixed with reference to the average of a series of years, good and bad, making sufficient allowances for occasional deficiencies of rainfall and other vicissitudes. A system of assessment under which a soil assessment and a water assessment are separately imposed on wet lands and the water assessment is remitted when no water is given for irrigation is regarded as more equitable on account of its simplicity and elasticity, though in actual practice some difficulties may be encountered.

Land Revenue Code, 1888

During the British Commission days, the Government thought of framing a Land Revenue Code but owing to unforeseen circumstances, the idea of putting such a code on the statute book was put off. In 1882, after the rendition, a Special Officer was appointed to examine the land revenue rules prevailing in Mysore and the laws in the neighbouring provinces, in order to see how best to evolve a new code. The Special Officer, after a careful study of the subject, reported that the revenue rules then in force in the State were in a very unsatisfactory condition and formulated fresh proposals. Thereupon, the Mysore Government decided to base their codification on the Bombay Land Revenue Code which was found suitable for the territories of Mysore. The first draft of the Mysore Code was published in 1883, and referred to a Select Committee for proper scrutiny. The salient portions of the draft Code were fully debated at the Mysore Representative Assembly sessions held in 1883 and 1884 and the views of the representatives were given due weight. The considered opinions of all the revenue and judicial officers were obtained. In 1885, the revised draft was circulated for public information. After a few necessary alterations, the final draft was sent to the Government of India in 1886. In 1888, the Government of India agreed to the final draft and the new regulation called the Mysore Land Revenue Code (Act IV of 1888) was duly promulgated to come into force from 1st April 1889. The regulation underwent many changes by way of amendments in 1891, 1892, 1905, 1906, 1909, 1912, 1916 and 1919. The Code had 239 sections enumerating the various duties and functions of the revenue officers, the various measures to be adopted to realise land revenue, the several descriptions of tenures, the mode of conducting survey and settlements, the fixation of boundary marks, the penalties to be imposed on the cultivating class for failure to pay land revenue and other points of guidance for the proper functioning of the Land Revenue Department. Together with this Code

the Land Improvement Loans Regulation (IV of 1890) and the Land Acquisition Regulation (VII of 1894) were passed into law during 1890-94. The rules framed under the Mysore Land Revenue Code were first published in July 1890 and revised in 1901. This was followed by the appointment in August 1902 of the Revenue Commissioner as head of the Revenue Department. In 1903-1904, a scheme for the devolution of larger powers and responsibilities on the Assistant Commissioners was ushered in.

According to Section 115 of the Land Revenue Code, 1888, revisions of original settlements could be carried out having regard to certain basic principles, the main provisions to be followed being that the revised assessment should take note of the value of land as to soil or situation, prices prevalent in the region and improvements made with private capital. If, for instance, a land was improved by recourse to private capital and as a result of those improvements the land yielded more than the average, the settlement authorities had statutory powers under the Land Revenue Code to effect suitable revisions in the assessment so as to bring more to the coffers of the State.

Acting on the above principles, the survey and settlement authorities found ways and means of implementing the desired objective. The first taluk which was ready for a revision was Davangere. Though the taluk became ripe for revision settlement in 1895, it was actually revised nine years after the due time because of some administrative bottlenecks. The effect of revision settlements was that the assessment on *bagayat* lands (garden) was reduced with a moderate increase on that of wet and dry lands.

Land Revenue Act, 1964

At the time of formation of new Mysore State, different Revenue Codes were in force in the various integrating areas. In order to have a comprehensive legislation for the whole of the new Mysore State, a new code was adopted in 1964, called the Mysore Land Revenue Act, 1964 (Mysore Act 12 of 1964). This new Act contains many of the provisions of the old Mysore Land Revenue Code of 1888, and facilitates the smooth working of settlements, assessments and collection of revenue. Reasonable powers have been given to revenue officers in respect of remissions, fixation of holdings and the like. Soon after the promulgation of this comprehensive piece of legislation, new assessment rates were fixed after necessary settlements.

Inam lands

Apart from the raiyatwari tenure, there were Inam lands which have been now abolished under an Act of the Legislature. All the Inam lands now vest with Government and Inam Deputy Commissioners have been appointed to determine compensation. Though the Inam tenures have now been abolished, a brief description of them in a survey of revenue administration may not be out of

place. The origin of Inams dates back prior to 1880. The origin of the Inams may be traced to three epochs, *viz.*, those gifted up-to the end of Dewan Purnaiya's administration in 1810, those granted during the reign of His Highness the Maharaja Krishnaraja Wodeyar III and those granted by the Chief Commissioner of Mysore. An Inam was a grant by the Government for the personal benefit of an individual or individuals or for religious, charitable or other purposes or for services rendered to the State or to a village community. Lands so granted were held free of assessment or subject to a *jodi* (light assessment) or quit-rent. According to the Land Revenue Code, the term "Inam" or "alienation of land" meant the assignment in favour of an individual or individuals or of a religious or charitable institution wholly or partially of the right of Government to levy land revenue. *Kayamgutta* villages, *i.e.*, villages granted on a permanent assessment with a view to promoting cultivation were also treated in the same manner as Inam villages since 1877.

After the restoration of the State to the Maharaja in 1799, the British Commissioners advised Dewan Purnaiya that no alienation of land should be made without the Resident's approval. This advice was accepted by the Dewan during his administration, the alienations between 1799 and 1811 being in reality not frequent, and the Inams which were being entered as having been created during Purnaiya's administration being chiefly those which had been resumed during the administration of Haidar Ali and Tipu Sultan and which it was thought proper to restore. From 1810 to 1831, Maharaja Sri Krishnaraja Wodeyar III alienated some lands, besides confirming others on Kayamgutta or permanent tenure, and the system of administration in vogue then afforded his subordinate officers also opportunities for alienating land without proper authority. The third epoch dates from the commencement of the British administration in 1831. The grants made during the period were comparatively of small value and were held on condition of service consisting of the upkeep of choultries and maintenance of groves, tanks and avenue trees. In addition to these, a considerable number of 'Sthal' Inams or as they were sometimes called 'Chor' Inams were in existence. Under this category were comprised all such Inams as (although enjoyed for some time) had not been granted by competent authority.

Under the orders of Dewan Purnaiya, a survey was made of all Inam lands. This survey was called "Akshaya Paimayish" because the survey was conducted in the Hindu year Akshaya. The investigation was neither accurate nor systematic. Still, the results of such survey were of some use for purposes of Inam settlement. Further, it was not a survey in terms of acres or guntas but on the basis of *bijavari* (quantity of seeds required). The Inam accounts in Purnaiya's time were prepared "Isuwar" and "talukwar" and not for the village, and they constituted the original *jari inamti* accounts or a record of valid grants confirmed

by due authority. During his settlement, Purnaiya also dealt with excesses discovered in all personal Inams over and above three Kantiraya pagodas (about Rs. 9) in value. The offshoot of his settlement appears roughly to have been the confirmation of Inams of the value of about eight lakhs of rupees with a *jodi* of about three lakhs of rupees.

Inam Commission, 1866

A searching investigation into the Inam tenures of the Indian States had long been contemplated by the British Government, but it was not until 1863 when the first revenue survey was introduced in Mysore that the necessity for the investigation became urgent. In January 1863, skeleton Inam rules were submitted to the Government of India and their advice was solicited. The general principles then laid down served as a sufficient guide in revenue survey matters where the interests of Inamdars were concerned. In 1866, an Inam Commission was set up for a full probe into the various aspects of the tenure. At that time, various Inam tenures were in existence in Mysore. In some Inams, there were *sannads* under the seal of the ruling authority. In others, there were none. In some, a hereditary title without restriction as to the heirs and powers of alienating were added in the *sannads*, while in others no mention was made of such privileges. Again, excess holdings were the rule and there were a large number of cases in which land had been surreptitiously occupied for a long period. But in doubtful cases and where there was a probability of the Inam having been in the enjoyment of the holder for a period of 50 years, the quit-rent to be imposed was one-fourth of the assessment. It is seen from this principle of assessment that the quit-rent was imposed for extension of rights to the Inamdar.

At the time of its organisation in 1866, the Inam Commission was composed of an Inam Commissioner, one Special Assistant and three other Assistants. In 1872-73, the control of the Commission's proceedings was transferred to the Survey Commissioner while the settlement was carried on by another officer called the Superintendent of Inam Settlements. Under this scheme, the judicial powers exercised by Inam Officers were withdrawn and claims were referred to ordinary civil courts. Upon a representation of the Survey and Settlement Commissioner in 1872 that the procedure laid down was not conducive to securing the full amount of quit-rent and local fund cesses, a survey of all the Inam villages for ascertaining their correct valuation was approved by the Chief Commissioner. In 1881, the Government on the complaint of the Inamdars directed that the survey assessment on the lands under cultivation with 25 per cent of the assessment on the arable waste on account of prospective improvements, together with a reasonable pasture rent on the unarable waste, would be a fair valuation to adopt. All Inam villages in the district were dealt with in accordance with these orders and final title deeds were issued. The classes of Inams in the district were personal Inams for personal benefit, Brahmadaya

Inams including Agrahar Inams, Religious and Charitable Inams, Kodagi Inams, Service Inams and Miscellaneous Inams. Some of the Inams comprised whole villages, while others comprised a few specified lands in a village. These latter were called Minor Inams. The whole Inam villages fell into three categories, viz., *Sarvamanya*, *Jodi* and *Kayamgutta*. *Sarvamanya* villages were held free of all demands and only cesses on the recorded value were recovered from the holders. *Jodi* villages were those held on a light assessment. In the case of *Jodi* villages the holder had to pay the original *jodi* plus the quit-rent, if any, imposed during the Inam Settlement, together with cesses on the recorded value of the villages. The *Kayamgutta* villages were the nearest approach to the permanently settled estates prevailing then in the Indian provinces. The holders of these villages paid the *Kayamgutta* together with cesses. All Inams confirmed as *Kayamgutta* were hereditable and transferable.

Inam Commission, 1918

The condition of Inam villages came up for serious consideration of Government several times as a result of the discussions in the Representative Assembly and the Legislative Council. Two committees were appointed in May 1915 and May 1916 but as the deliberations of these committees did not lead to any useful results, a Commission consisting of seven members was appointed in July 1918 to examine the whole question. On the recommendation of the Inam Commission of 1918, the Mysore Land Revenue Code was amended to incorporate certain decisions. Certain reliefs were obtained by the tenants of the Inam villages as a result of several amendments. This was the first attempt to protect and secure the rights of tenants in Inam villages. A new section (Section 119-A) was added to the Mysore Land Revenue Code empowering Government to take over the management of Inams during the period of minority or unsoundness of mind of a holder. This provision in the Code was widely welcomed. Certain other directions were issued by Government without amending the Land Revenue Code to safeguard the interests of raiyats. These were implemented in 1925 and 1927. According to the Government's decision, the raiyats in Inam villages were treated in the same manner as raiyats in Government villages regarding the responsibility apportioned to them in the restoration and maintenance of irrigation works. Inamdars were held solely responsible not only for the *Jodi* but also for the water rate. Inam villages were also brought under the village improvement schemes.

Inam Committee, 1932

In spite of these helpful measures, the relationship between the Inamdars and their tenants did not improve. Most of the tenants in the Inam villages felt that their position was insecure and their lot not as happy as that of their counterparts in Government villages. The Inamdars, on the other hand, complained that the tenants were very irregular in the payment of rent, forcing the Inamdars frequently to civil litigation for the recovery. On the

approval of a suggestion to appoint a mixed committee of officials and non-officials, the Government appointed another Inam Committee in 1932 to go into the question of the entire Inam tenure with all its problems. The Committee after fully going into the question, recommended that survey and settlement should be compulsorily introduced in all Inam villages in which they had not yet been introduced. Several other reformative features relating to resumption of tenures, disputes arising out of settlements and the fixation of rents to be charged were enumerated in the Committee's recommendations. The Government accepted the recommendations with the modification that action should be taken only if not less than 50 per cent of the tenants or 50 per cent of the *vrittidars* desired Government management of Inam villages. The necessary amendments to the Land Revenue Code were effected in 1939 and 1940. The Alienated Villages Purchase Act (Act II of 1944) enabling Government to purchase an alienated village at the request of the holder or holders at a price agreed to by the latter also came into force in 1944.

At a later stage, there was a general feeling that the action taken by Government on the recommendations of the Inam Commission of 1918 and the Inam Committee of 1932 had not resulted in any substantial improvement in the condition of the raiyats of Inam villages and the complete abolition of all Inams was urged in the Legislature. Ultimately, the Inams were abolished by necessary legislation.

Present System of Survey

The land revenue system prevalent at present in the Chitradurga district is *raiyatwari* and is based upon a complete survey, soil classification and settlement of the assessment of each holding. With the abolition of all Inams, the ex-Inam villages were subjected to a cadastral survey. Till recently, survey was done by chain and cross staff. By a recent decision, the Government introduced the plane table method of survey instead of the old chain and cross staff. This new method visualised a better improvement in work. The training of surveyors in the use of plane table sets commenced from March 1959 and all the surveyors were trained in this new method. The unit of area employed in the survey was the "English acre" with its sub-division, *i.e.*, guntas (40 guntas make one acre). Recently, the Government took a decision to adopt the metric system for the survey and maintenance of land records. Now, the unit area is the hectare with its sub-division, the are.

In August 1957, the reclassification work in some districts was undertaken and by employing additional survey parties, it was completed well in time. The settlement of land revenue had long expired in all the taluks of the district. According to the settlement procedure till recently in vogue, a settlement officer

had to conduct a detailed enquiry in the taluk to form an impression as to the agricultural economy of the area. On the basis of his examination, he recommended certain rates of assessment to the Government. The process of these investigations had no scientific basis. It was mainly the impressions of the Settlement Officer which formed the basis of his recommendations. Regarding the economic conditions of the tract, there were no efforts to conduct any socio-economic survey. The Taxation Enquiry Commission of 1953-54 formulated certain scientific principles in respect of land revenue assessment and enunciated a new theory so as to bring about a relationship between the actual yield and the prices of the principal crops. The formation of zones as units in the place of taluks for purposes of settlement was suggested. The standard rate to be fixed had to be calculated at a certain percentage of the price of the gross yield per acre of principal and money crops. Instructions through circulars were issued to Tahsildars to conduct crop-cutting experiments and to note the results in the relevant registers and make them available to the Settlement Officers as and when they were posted.

Recent Revision Settlement

As the revision settlement was overdue in the district, the Government ordered a fresh settlement, having regard to the economic development of the region. The revision settlement work was taken up in 1960-61 by posting Settlement Officers. The district was divided into three zones, namely, zone IV, zone V and zone VI and each zone was divided into three Groups. The first zone comprised the taluks of Harihar and Davangere in Chitradurga district and Honnali and Channagiri in Shimoga district. The second zone comprised the taluks of Chitradurga, Holalkere, Hosadurga and Hiriyur of Chitradurga district and Sira, Madhugiri and Pavagada taluks of Tumkur district. The third zone consisted of the taluks of Challakere, Jagalur and Molakalmuru taluks of Chitradurga district. The settlement work was completed in about two years in all these three zones. The following rates, as approved by the two houses of legislature, were brought into force in the district from 1965 :—

		Standard rates (in rupees)		
Zone	*Group*	*Dry land*	*Wet land*	*Garden land*
IV	I	2.77	6.46	7.68
	II	2.62	7.96	7.68
	III	2.28	8.32	9.60
V	I	2.27	8.32	11.52
	II	1.69	8.32	11.52
	III	2.45	10.59	12.80
VI	I	1.75	8.32	11.52
	II	1.48	10.13	11.52
	III	2.48	10.20	11.52

Percentage surcharges have been levied on land revenue as per legislative enactments.

The present system of survey in the district is according to the procedure laid down in the Mysore Revenue Survey Manual which enumerates certain basic principles like the submission of settlement proposals for the sanction of Government, *pot pahani* or inspection of fields and shares in fields, detailed calculation of assessment and announcement or introduction of the rates of assessment. The Superintendent, who is in charge of the work, has to submit proposals for consideration and orders of Government. When the examination of the classification work of a taluk is completed, he begins to work out his scheme of settlement and then to have the *pot pahani* carried out by the Revenue Department under the direct supervision of the Tahsildar. It has always been the practice to include in a proposal for settlement no larger area than a single taluk and occasionally a group of villages forming a portion of a taluk. The points which are usually discussed in the settlement report may be roughly divided under six main heads *viz.*, introductory remarks, position and physical characteristics, climate, general condition of the people and resources of agriculture, past revenue history, grouping of villages and fixing of maximum rates. In formulating his proposals for revision settlement, the Superintendent has to pay particular attention to the limits of increase prescribed by Government as follows :—

(1) The increase of revenue in the case of a taluk or group of villages brought under the same maximum dry crop rate shall not exceed 33 per cent;

(2) No increase exceeding 66 per cent shall be imposed on a single village without the circumstances of the case being specially reported for the orders of Government;

(3) No increase exceeding 100 per cent shall in like manner be imposed on an individual holding;

(4) In calculating the above percentage limits, the calculation shall be confined to the land revenue assessment proper.

As soon as the proposals for the re-settlement of a taluk are ready, the Government will, in consultation with the Survey Superintendent and the Deputy Commissioner concerned, determine the general lines on which the assessment should be revised in respect of the re-grouping of the taluk and the percentage of increase of assessment for the several classes of land. The Survey Superintendent will then submit the proposals for the orders of Government with all necessary details. As soon as the proposals for the resettlement of a taluk are ready, the Survey Superintendent will forward a notification in Kannada and the Deputy

Commissioner of the district will cause it to be published without delay by pasting the same in the chavadi or other conspicuous place in the village. All objections preferred by individual cultivators or by a body of cultivators holding lands under one common source of irrigation or under the same group will be received by the Deputy Commissioner who will forward them with his opinion to the Survey Superintendent. The Survey Superintendent will then submit the same for the orders of Government with his final remarks on the objections. Prior to the introduction of an original settlement in a taluk, it was customary to carry out in the field what is called *pot pahani, i.e.*, a detailed inspection of every number and sub-division thereof. It comprises an examination of every field and its boundary marks and a verification of the entries as to tenure and holder's name, made by the survey officials in the preliminary survey records from which the *akarbund* is eventually prepared. For purposes of a revised settlement, *pot pahani* is not necessary for each and every field. It is restricted to such numbers as have *pot kuls, i.e.*, numbers which are in the holding of more *khatedars* than one. Ten per cent of the numbers subjected to *pot pahani* should be tested by the Tahsildar or the Sheristedar or such other subordinates as the Deputy Commissioner may appoint.

Calculation of Assessment

After the maximum rates are sanctioned by Government, the Superintendent has to issue necessary instructions for proceeding with the detailed calculation of the assessment, numberwise. The factors taken into account in working out the assessment of each survey number are the classification value of the survey number, the maximum rate adopted for the village, the area of the survey number, the distance of the survey number from the village site and the *dharsod* or elimination of fractions according to a fixed scale. The first step in the process of working out the assessment (*akar*) is to ascertain the *dar* or rate per acre of each and every survey number which is done by means of a *jantri* or ready reckoner. The rate gives the assessment rates fixed for the several classes of the valuation scale under a given maximum, taking at the same time into account the other factors such as distance and the population in a given tract. The next step is to work out the *akar* or assessment of each number. The *akar* of a number is the product of its rate and area. The product which is called the *katcha akar* is converted into a *kayam* or final *akar* by means of the *dharsod* scale for rounding. The application of this scale is the last operation in the process of calculation of assessment. The *kayam akar* worked out is then entered against each number in the column provided for it in the *akarbund*. The completed *akarbunds* are submitted to the Superintendent, who then transmits them to the Tahsildar for the preparation of the *Vasul Baki Patra* intimating the dates on which the rates have to be announced.

The records kept for the introduction of the survey settlement are generally known and spoken of as the settlement papers. They are prepared in order to effect and record the transition from the old to the new system of administering land revenue. With the above end in view, several forms, the efficacy of which has been proved by long experience, have to be prepared for each village in which survey settlement is introduced. The forms have been so arranged as to record clearly and exhibit the existing proprietary and other rights of all classes of the community. At the same time, it has been found easy to embody in the compilation, without much expense, a great deal of miscellaneous information which proves of the greatest possible value to the officer introducing the settlement.

The papers, which are necessary in order to introduce effectively the new survey settlements, are (1) the *pahani sud* or settlement showing the old numbering of lands and the survey numbers, names of fields, description of tenure, name of the occupant and survey area of each number ; this paper is always accompanied by a map of the village, (2) *akarbund* or register of survey numbers showing the total area under each head, arable and unarable, dry land, wet land and garden land in detail with the rate per acre and assessment of each and the total assessment fixed on the entire number, (3) *pot pahani* book or inspection statement showing the old and the new numberings of every survey number and full information regarding tenure and occupancy, (4) statement showing the number and description of trees in each survey number known as *Jhar Patrak,* (5) statement of grazing land known as the *Hulbanni Takhta,* (6) statement showing full particulars of each occupant's entire holdings under the old and new systems, known as the *Wasul Baki Patra,* (7) *Phutkal Patra* or detailed statement of occupancies when two or more are included in one and the same revenue survey number with the area and assessment of each, (8) statement of waste lands known as the *Banajar Takhta,* (9) the final settlement register known as the *Laoni Faisal Patra* and (10) the *Jodidar Takhta* or statement of Jodi Inam land .

Collection of Land Revenue

The collection of assessed land revenue is the special task of the taluk revenue officers and officials, *viz.*, the Tahsildar, the Revenue Inspector, the Shanbhogue and others. The actual collection is done according to prescribed procedure laid down in the Land Revenue Act which postulates the cardinal principle that the *Khatedar* of any unalienated land should be legally responsible for the payment of land revenue. The revenue authorities have powers to fix suitable dates for the payment of the *kist.* If there is failure on the part of the land-owners to make payment of revenue on stipulated dates, the Deputy Commissioner can exercise powers under the Land Revenue Act, 1964, to get the harvested crops released for sale or otherwise. The authorities will then collect the due revenue from the sale-proceeds. In the event of disputes arising over the ownership of the land, the

revenue authorities need not wait till the disputes are settled for collection of the *kist*. The Deputy Commissioner has the authority in such an emergency to take possession of such land or *hissa* and then proceed to collect revenue. The Land Revenue Act gives enough powers to the officers to declare defaulters and proceed against them according to law. Under relevant articles of the Revenue Act, the Deputy Commissioner has powers to seize the entire village for non-payment of tax and appoint special officers to collect the arrears. Provision has also been made to auction the defaulter's land under due notice.

The land revenue demand has been progressively on the increase in the Chitradurga district. In 1920-21, the total demand for the entire district was Rs. 9,46,208-13-10 and in 1924-25, the demand had increased to Rs. 9,67,026-0-0. In 1958-59, the total demand was Rs. 16,38,766-12 and in 1959-60, it was Rs. 17,94,544-89, whereas in 1963-64, the demand had increased to Rs. 20,73,807-08. A statement showing the demand, collection and balance of the land revenue for the years 1959-60 to 1963-64 has been appended at the end of this chapter.

The land revenue demand varies from taluk to taluk and is not uniform because of several factors like the area of the taluk, soil classification, irrigation facilities and nearness to markets. There has also been a liberalisation of the remission rules during recent years which indicates a gradual departure from the previously accepted view that as the assessment is based on the average conditions during a long period including good as well as bad years, the cultivator is not entitled to relief in years during which the crops suffer on account of adverse seasonal conditions. In July 1934, a committee of officials and non-officials was appointed by Government with instructions to make a rapid enquiry into the extent to which the fall in the price of agricultural produce in preceeding years had affected the resources, debt obligations and credit facilities of the land-owning and cultivating classes in different parts of the State and to report upon the nature and extent of the assistance that might be given to relieve them from the difficuties caused by the depression. The majority report of the committee did not recommend any reduction of land assessment, though liberalisation of the remission rules and a system of instalments to pay land revenue were recommended.

Remission Rules

There were no specific remission rules in the State prior to 1922 and when occasions for grant of relief did arise as in 1908-09, the Government passed special orders for the occasion. The first rules regarding grant of suspensions and remissions on account of adverse seasonal conditions were issued on 4th February 1922. These rules were mainly based on the Bombay system and provided

that when owing to failure of rains throughout a tract or if any tank did not receive adequate supply of water and more than half the area under it was left uncultivated or if cultivated, yielded a crop of not more than a quarter in the rupee, the recovery of half the wet assessment on all wet lands under it should be suspended. This suspended assessment was to be collected during the following year unless there was a failure of crop in that year also in which case it was to be remitted. These rules were revised from time to time. Up to the year 1939, the remission rules had no provision for the remission of dry assessment on account of loss of crops arising from the failure or insufficiency of rains. In tracts which suffered badly by drought, the Government were sanctioning suspension of revenue and even remission of a part of the demand as a special concession outside the rules whenever occasion demanded. For the first time, provision for the remission of assessment on dry lands was incorporated in the remission rules in the year 1939. These rules authorised the Deputy Commissioner to grant suspension of one-fourth of the assessment, if throughout any tract, there was a partial or total failure or destruction of crops on account of drought or other cause, the suspended revenue being normally collected in the following year along with the assessment of that year and remitted altogether, if the crops failed. A hobli in the taluk was to be treated as a tract for purposes of suspension of dry assessment. During 1945-46, when there were signs of severe distress in the district, remission and suspension of revenue were granted on a liberal scale. In 1960, the expected south-west monsoon showers failed in the district as a result of which severe distress prevailed throughout the area. Suspension and remission were ordered as also the expeditious execution of relief works. Again during 1965-66, a severe drought swept over the district and relief measures on a large scale were ordered by Government. Remissions were also given as per rules.

Land Reforms

Problem of tenancy.—The total cultivable area owned by holders in the district was 12,80,236 acres in 1964-65, out of which 92,347 acres were leased out to tenants. The problem of tenancy arises when the land-owner lets out the land to some-one else who then becomes the tenant on terms defined by contract or custom. The distinction between such a tenant and a mere agricultural labourer is well defined. The latter receives a fixed wage and works under the supervision and control of the employer. He has no right to the land and is not directly concerned with the produce. A tenant on the other hand works on his own. He agrees to pay the land-owner a certain cash rent or more often a specified share of the produce. He utilises his own labour and also that of the members of his family and may, in busy seasons or otherwise as need arises, employ hired labour to assist him. The land-owner may supply, besides the land, some capital and equipment. Often he supplies only the land and takes no interest in agricultural

operations. A tenant is thus not only his own manager but also in part an entrepreneur. His reward fluctuates according to the crops he obtains and the prices they fetch.

A study of tenancy legislation undertaken elsewhere indicates both the seriousness of the tenancy problem and its complexity which make the problem acute. Tenancy legislation aims at granting the benefits of fixity of tenure, fair rent and free transfers to tenants. But it appears that while the privileges of the landlord have been considerably curtailed by reform measures, their benefit has not yet fully reached the actual cultivator who is often a mere crop-sharer. The liberal view as expressed by the Famine Inquiry Commission projected the idea that the settlement of tenancy conditions should be fair and equitable to both landlord and tenant. The extremist view advocates the abolition of the landlord system itself and suggests the creation of a new owner-cultivator class.

The first measure in respect of land reforms that was enacted in Mysore was called the Mysore Tenancy Act of 1952. Before the passing of this Act, the rights of tenants were regulated by the Mysore Land Revenue Code. According to various provisions contained in the Code, there were two classes of tenants with permanent rights, namely, *Kadim* tenants in respect of Inam lands and permanent tenants in respect of both alienated and unalienated Government lands. *Kadim* tenants were those who paid only the land revenue: permanent tenants were those who had held the land from antiquity or who were in continuous possession on a fixed rent for twelve years under no contract regarding the nature or duration of the tenancy or who were recognised as permanent tenants by the landlord or by a court or who had made permanent improvements and were in continuous possession for 12 years or who had exercised the right of transfer which the landlord did not repudiate. Apart from these special classes of tenants, all other tenants were tenants-at-will.

Mysore Tenancy Act, 1952

The Mysore Tenancy Act of 1952 and the rules thereunder gave some measure of security to tenants in possession of the land. The Act laid down that those who were in possession of tenancy should be secure for a period of five years from the commencement of the Act and were liable to ejectment at the end of the period unless the landlord from whom they secured tenancy allowed them to continue. Those tenants who had been in continuous possession for a period exceeding 12 years before 1st April 1951 were given further security inasmuch as the landlord could, if circumstances arose, eject them on the ground of personal cultivation only from a part of their holding. Under this provision, the landlord could resume half the area of a tenant holding 10 acres or less. In the case of tenants holding more than 10 acres, the landlords were

able to resume from 50 to 75 per cent of the tenancy area. But those tenants from whom resumption of land was possible were liable to ejectment on the ground of sub-division of land, sub-letting of land, or failure to cultivate it personally, leaving the land fallow, using the land for purposes other than agriculture, failure to pay rent or for acts destructive or permanently injurious to the land. As regards the rent, it was fixed not to exceed one half of the produce or its value. The Mysore Tenancy Act, 1952, was amended by an ordinance dated 11th March 1957 continuing all leases where the period of 5 years had expired and also requiring that surrenders of land should be in writing and duly verified and registered in the Office of the Tahsildar. The land surrendered was to be taken under Government management, and was to be leased out to co-operative farming societies, agricultural labourers and other agriculturists.

Amendment Act

Earlier to the promulgation of this ordinance, the Mysore Government introduced a bill further to amend the Mysore Tenancy Act, 1952, adding one more category to the already existing categories of tenants. After the amendment, the categorisation consisted of three classes *viz.*, protected tenants, non-protected tenants and ordinary tenants. The protected tenants were those who had held land continuously for a period of not less than 9 years before 1st April 1951 and who had cultivated the land personally during this period. The unprotected tenants were those who had held land continuously for a period of not less than 5 years. The protected tenants were liable to ejectment on the ground that the landlord required the land for personal cultivation or for non-agricultural use up to one-fourth of the permissible holding which was defined in the Act as 25 standard acres. Where the landlord held the land on behalf of himself and other members of his family, the permissible holding was 25 standard acres for each member of his family subject to a minimum of 100 standard acres. In determining the area which a landlord could resume from protected tenants, the area already cultivated personally by him or leased to a tenant other than a protected tenant was to be taken into account. The income by the cultivation of such land was to be the main source of income of the landlord for his maintenance. This condition however did not apply to lands resumed for non-agricultural use. The non-protected tenants could be ejected on one year's notice on the ground of the landlord's requiring the land for personal cultivation up to one permissible holding. The condition that the land was required by the landlord as the main source of his income for his maintenance applied in this case also.

The ejected tenant was entitled to restoration if the landlord did not cultivate the land personally within two years. All other tenants were given a minimum term of 10 years instead of 5 years and were liable to ejectment at the end of the period; if however the landlord allowed them to hold over, their term would extend to another period of 10 years. They were also liable to ejectment

on one year's notice in exercise of the landlord's right of resumption in the same way as non-protected tenants. Protected tenants and non-protected tenants—but not ordinary tenants—were entitled to purchase the landlord's rights on payment of the market value either in a lumpsum or in instalments not exceeding six and spread over a period not exceeding 10 years. This right of purchase was subject to two conditions, namely, that the total land which the tenant could purchase (including the land held in his possession as owner) was 25 standard acres and the total area remaining with the landlord after the purchase would not be less than the permissible holding (from 25 to 100 standard acres). After the purchase by the protected tenant or non-protected tenant, the tenant had no right to transfer the land by sale, gift or otherwise. According to the Act of 1952, the maximum rent payable was half of all crops raised on the land. According to the amending bill, it was not to exceed half of the main crop raised on the land or its value. Other changes made in the amending bill related to limitation for payment of the reasonable rent, dwelling houses built on the land and other cognate matters. The interest of the protected tenant was made heritable and he was entitled to compensation for improvements made by him. The Bill had not completed all the necessary stages for becoming law at the time of the States' reorganisation in 1956.

Tenancy Agricultural Land Laws Committee

Further steps in reforms.—After the States' reorganisation, there was a persistent demand to appoint a Land Reforms Committee to go into the question in all its details. The Mysore Tenancy Agricultural Land Laws Committee was appointed on 10th May 1957 with a view to examining the existing tenancy and agricultural land laws and to making suitable recommendations for a comprehensive legislation. The committee went into the question of fixation of rent, security of tenure, right of resumption of land by landlords for personal cultivation, right of purchase by tenants and payment of compensation to landlords, ceiling extent of land-holdings, fixing the extent of basic or economic and family holdings and specifying the areas to which they apply, prohibition of land ownership as a source of income by persons who are not themselves cultivators or by those who do not reside either in the village in which the land is situated or on the farm and restraint on alienation of land in favour of non-agriculturists.

The committee after examining all these aspects submitted the report in 1958 recommending a ceiling on holdings. The report as presented to Government contained many far-reaching recommendations and their views on the changing pattern of tenancy legisation may be quoted here. The report said: "Ideas of tenancy legislation are fast changing. This is reflected in the frequency with which the tenancy laws are being recast. These rapid changes have affected the enforcement of law also. It is noticed that in

spite of new legislation on the statute book, the old practices still obtain in the field. There are also gaps in the laws which render them ineffective. The anxiety to balance meticulously the respective interests of the landlord and the tenant has resulted in the laws becoming complicated and beyond the understanding of the common peasantry. Attempts by legislation to harmonise the relations between the landlords and the tenants and not to widen the gulf between them have failed. The only remedy to safeguard the position of the tenants appears therefore to be to end the tenant-landlord relationship". The two objectives, namely, the elimination of the landlord-tenant relationship and the re-distribution of land to satisfy the aspirations of the landless mainly inspired the committee's recommendations.

Basing their faith on the recommendations submitted by the Mysore Tenancy Agricultural Land Laws Committee (1957), the Government of Mysore introduced a new Bill called the Mysore Land Reforms Bill, 1958, before the Mysore Legislature. The Mysore Legislative Assembly discussed the Joint Select Committee's report and adopted the Bill in September 1961. Later on, the Bill was approved by the Upper House.

Mysore Land Reforms Act, 1961

The Mysore Land Reforms Act, 1961, as amended in 1965, came into force from 2nd Octiber 1965, in its entirety. However, certain provisions have been so framed that their effectiveness will be felt only at a later stage. For example, under section 44 of the Act, the Government has to issue a notification declaring the date from which the non-resumable land vests in the Government. But this can be done only after the land tribunals determine the non-resumable lands under section 14. Under section 14, the land owners who desire to resume land have to file a statement before the Tribunal. In regard to future tenancies, the statement has to be filed within five years from the date of creation of tenancy. For the present, the Munsiffs will function as land tribunals under sub-section (2) of section 111 of the Act.

Under the provisions of the Act, no tenancy can be terminated merely on the ground that its duration, whether by agreement or otherwise, has expired. Tenants who were cultivating land prior to 10th September 1957, but who had been dispossessed either by surrender or eviction, are entitled for restoration of possession. Eviction of tenants can only be done in accordance with Section 22 of the Act.

Land leased to permanent tenants or those leased by a company, association or other body of individuals (not being a joint family), whether incorporated or not, or by a religious, charitable or other institutions capable of holding property cannot be resumed.

From the date of vesting, all non-resumable lands leased to tenants would stand transferred to the State Government. Lands in excess of 27 standard acres in the case of existing holdings would be treated as surplus land, which would be vested with the Government. The ceiling area for future holdings is limited to 18 standard acres. A standard acre means one acre of first class land or extent equivalent thereto as laid down in the Schedule to the Act. The future ceiling would be, therefore, as below :

Class of land	*Ceiling area in acres*
I Class	18
II Class	24
III Class	30
IV Class	36
V Class	72
VI Class	108
VII Class	144

The ceiling provisions do not apply to regimental farm lands or to plantations as defined in the Act.

Compensation would be paid for all lands vested in the State at the rates prescribed in the Act. The Act does not apply to lands belonging to or held on lease from the Government or from religious or charitable institutions managed by or under the control of the State Government or from a public trust or a society established for public educational purpose created or formed before the 18th November 1961 and which was in existence on the 18th July 1965.

The Mysore Land Reforms Rules, 1965, have been published excepting the rules relating to co-operative farms and the rules relating to the issue of compensation bonds. One of the most important pre-requisites for the successful implementation of land reforms is the bringing of the tenancy registers up-to-date. As desired by the Planning Commission, a comprehensive scheme has been drawn up for providing the necessary funds for paying compensation.

Consolidation of holdings

It has long been recognised that one of the causes responsible for making agriculture an unprofitable occupation in India is the sub-division and fragmentation of holdings. The pressure of population on the soil and the operation of the laws of inheritance have resulted in the splitting up of a large portion of the cultivated land into holdings which fail to conform to any reasonable economic standard. The problem has two distinct aspects. The holdings not only tend to become small but the individual holdings tend to become fragmented into a number of plots often scattered over different parts of the village. As each generation enters into its

patrimony, the extent of land that goes to the share of each heir diminishes with the result that there is no steady and orderly development of the land. The Mysore Tenancy Agricultural Land Laws Committee (1957) has observed that the implementation of the provisions regarding the rights of resumption, especially by holders, may result in the creation of fragments. As it was not in the interests of efficient agriculture to allow fragmentation in future, the committee suggested that where the exercise of the right of resumption would involve the formation of a fragment, such fragment should go to the person, who is entitled to the larger part. The Mysore Land Reforms Act which has been in force has, in its provisions, the implications of this principle.

Mysore Bhoodan Yajna Act

The great Bhoodan Yajna movement initiated by Acharya Vinoba Bhave has had its impact on the minds of the people living in the district. The gifted land is to be distributed to the landless poor who have no other means of livelihood. In order to remove certain defects in the transfer of land, the Mysore revenue administration introduced a Bill to regularise such transfers. This bill was passed by the two houses of Legislature and promulgated as a law from 1st July, 1965. There are several volunteers in the district who propagate among the people the importance of this movement.

STATEMENT SHOWING THE LAND REVENUE DEMAND, COLLECTION AND BALANCE FOR THE YEARS 1959–60 TO 1963–64 IN CHITRADURGA DISTRICT.

Year	Arrears	Land Revenue demand	Land Revenue suspended	Land Revenue not paid, remitted	Miscellaneous deductions if any	Land Revenue actually collected	Balance
	Rs.	Rs.		Rs.		Rs.	Rs.
1959–60 ..	42,591.65	17,94,544.89	..	10,452.66	..	17,00,261.54	1,26,422.34
1960–61 ..	1,26,422 34	15,03,857.21	..	8,356.86	..	11,70,519.51	4,51,403.18
1961–62 ..	4,51,403.18	15,66,329.85	..	6,802.32	..	13,98,036.68	6,12,894.03
1962–63 ..	6,12,894 03	29,61,929.00	..	15,685.53	..	25,98,609.36	9,60,528.23
1963–64 ..	10,96,655.68	20,73,807.08	..	14,389.60	..	23,97,457.72	7,58,615.44

CHAPTER XII

LAW, ORDER AND JUSTICE

Police set-up in early period

UNDER the Mysore Wodeyars, the duties of the police were discharged by village servants called *Talawars*, *Totis*, *Nirgantis*, *Kavalgars*, *Patels* and *Shanbhogues*. These were continued, with slight variations under Haidar Ali, Tipu Sultan and Dewan Purnaiya. With the passage of time, the efficiency of the village police had gone down and a new type of officials called *Kandachar* peons was introduced to perform the duties of policing during the time of Purnaiya. These *Kandachar* peons were originally in the infantry. According to a report submitted by Col. Wilks in 1804, these *Kandachar* peons apprehended criminals and did all the policing in the district. In 1834, a new circular called the police *Hukumnama* defined the duties of the *Kandachar* force. During the days of the British Commission, the Military Finance Commission of the Government of India suggested the formation of a civil police corps. In 1866, the Government examined the question of introduction of the Madras Police system in the territories of Mysore. But it was found that the system was both defective and expensive. Mr. Mangles, then Judicial Commissioner, was asked to prepare a scheme to remodel the village police. Two sets of rules, one for the organization of the village police and the other for the regular police, drawn up in accordance with the suggestions of Mr. Mangles, were approved by the Government and issued for implementation in October 1872. In 1873, the Mangles system was introduced throughout the Chitradurga district, then the only district in the Mysore State which was completely surveyed and settled. It was found that the reconstitution of the village police would require time as the men available for recruitment required training. Provision was made for instructing the several grades of officials in police duties and requiring them to pass examinations. In Chitradurga district, the Deputy Commissioner was the *ex-officio* head of the police and from 1874 he was aided by one of the Assistant Commissioners who was called the Police Assistant to the Deputy Commissioner. The head of the Police Department was the Judicial Commissioner who became an *ex-officio* Inspector-General of Police. During 1876-77, the Judicial Commissioner ceased to exercise the powers of the Inspector-General of Police and in August 1879, the Chief

Commissioner of the State assumed direct control of the police through his Secretary in the General Department. This state of affairs underwent a change in 1880. The Police Assistant Commissionerships were abolished in the districts and the District Deputy Commissioners were empowered to employ the several Assistant Commissioners on any particular work, the general management of the police duties of the district and of the police branch of the District Office resting with the Deputy Commissioner himself. In the taluks, the police were under the Amildar (now designated Tahsildar). At that time, the ordinary weapon of the rural police was a stout bamboo cudgel about one and a half inches thick and 40 inches long, fitted with a brass ferrule.

After the rendition in 1881, the police force in Mysore was in the beginning in the hands of the Dewan and the District Deputy Commissioners. In 1885, the post of the Inspector-General of Police was created, the same officer holding also the posts of Inspector-General of Forests and Plantations and Director of Agriculture and Statistics. In 1891, the Police Department was further reorganised and posts of a full-time Inspector-General of Police and Police Assistant Commissioners designated as Superintendents of Police were created. In 1906, the posts of Superintendents and Assistant Superintendents of Police were merged in the general cadre of Assistant Commissioners. The police force in 1906 consisted of the village police and the regular force. The regular force was made up of officers and men appointed and enrolled under a regulation. In the Chitradurga district, the police consisted of the taluk police and the District Reserve Force, including the Armed Emergency Reserve, the former manning the various stations for ordinary policing and the latter attached to the District Police office to meet possible emergencies. In 1913, the Police Department was further reorganised and the pay of the Inspectors and their horse allowances increased. In the place of Jamedars, posts of Sub-Inspectors were created.

Present Set-up

The Mysore State Police for purposes of administration is divided into three divisions, each under the charge of a Deputy Inspector-General of Police, *viz.*, Northern, Central and Southern, Chitradurga district coming under the Central range. The police in the district is under the control of the Superintendent of Police who is assisted by two Deputy Superintendents of Police, one in Chitradurga and the other in Davangere.

The strength of the District Police at the end of the year 1965 was as follows:—

Supdt. of Police	*Dy. Supdt. of Police*	*Circle Inspectors*	*Police Sub-Inspectors*	*Assistant Sub-Inspectors*	*Head Constables*	*Constables*
1	2	7	29	2	133	599

Armed Reserve Police

Reserve Inspector	*Reserve Sub-Inspector*	*Assistant Reserve Sub-Inspector*	*Head Constables*	*Constables*
1	2	3	25	123

Formerly, there were some illiterates among the constabulary. But now only persons with a minimum educational qualification up to the middle school standard are being employed.

Transport is the mainstay for executive work. The District Executive Police had five jeeps, one land-rover, two motor cycles and four vans in 1965.

The Railway Police is not specially allotted to the district but is a part of a separate establishment with headquarters in Bangalore under a Superintendent.

A Fire Brigade consisting of one sub-officer, one assistant sub-officer, four firemen and others is stationed in Davangere and the brigade is under the control of the Director of Fire Services, Bangalore.

There is no regular village police force corresponding to the days of old. Until recently, Talawars and Patels did a kind of vigilance work in co-operation with the regular police force. A proposal to have a separate cadre of village police under the provisions of the Mysore Police Act, 1963, was under consideration of the Government in 1966.

Police Stations

There were 25 police stations and 17 out-posts in the district during 1965-66. The police stations were located in Molakalmuru, Rampur, Challakere, Parashurampur, Jagalur, Bilichodu, Davangere Town, Davangere Extension, Davangere Rural, Harihar, Chitradurga Town, Chitradurga Rural, Bharamasagar, Holalkere, Chikkajajur, Hosadurga, Srirampur, Hiriyur, Abbinahole, Thalak, Turuvanur, Aimangala, Malebennur, Mayakonda and Davangere (Traffic).

Out-posts were located at Javagondanahalli, Bagur, Jankal, Mathodu, Chitradurga Regulated Market, Chitradurga Town, Anaji, Gadimakunte, Ujjappa Vodeyarahalli, Davangere Regulated Market, Sirigere, Sanikere, Jagalur, Bommagondanakere, Ramagiri, Horakeredevarapura and Vanivilaspura.

The cost of the police administration in the district for 1964-65 was Rs. 14,09,690.34 as against Rs. 12,90,694.40 in 1963-64.

Uniform Police Act

In view of the fact that new Mysore State comprised the integrated districts from Bombay, Hyderabad, Madras and Coorg States, besides the old Mysore districts, different Police Acts were in force in those districts, when they became parts of the new Mysore State from 1st November 1956, consequent on the States' Reorganisation. In order to bring about uniformity, the Mysore Police Act of 1963 (Mysore Act No. 4 of 1964) was adopted and was brought into force throughout the State with effect from 2nd April 1965. The functions of the district police in Chitradurga are governed by this comprehensive measure.

Police welfare

A special Welfare Fund has been set up, the proceeds of which are utilised for the distribution of milk to the children of policemen. On special days of national importance like the Republic and Independence days, free milk is distributed. A small clinic is also opened at Chitradurga town to give medical aid to the men and officers. A similar clinic is also working at Davangere.

Efforts are being made to provide residential accommodation to all members of the District Police force. Seventeen houses were provided for officers and 404 tenements for men till 1965.

The relationship between the police and the public at large has been uniformly good; efforts are being made to educate the people about the important part played by the police in the welfare of the people.

The law and order position in the district has presented no serious problems and has remained more or less normal through the years. There have been no major disturbances anywhere, nor has there been any organized violence. A review of the crime statistics noted in Statement 'A', appended at the end of the chapter, indicates that the incidence of cognisable crimes has shown an upward trend since 1955. The total number of cognisable crimes (under the Indian Penal Code alone) was 562 in 1945, and 527 in 1954. The average number of such crimes per year between 1945 and 1954 was 549. It was 503 in 1955, 537 in 1956, 766 in 1957, and the number varied between 715 and 945 during the years 1958-1963 and it was highest in 1964, *i.e.*, 1,008.

Incidence of Crime

The average number of murders committed in the district during the period from 1945 to 1964 worked out to 15 per annum, the motive in the majority of cases being sexual jealousy, family quarrels, factions and feuds.

The number of dacoities varied between one and six in the last two decades except for the year 1947, when 10 cases were reported.

The activities of gangs migrating from other areas in the neighbourhood have been prevented and consequently cases have not registered any rise.

In the case of robberies, there were no variations during the last two decades except during the years 1956, 1960 and 1964. It remained at an average of 5 per year. Most of the robberies were not of a serious type.

Thefts

Thefts pertain to offences under Sections 457 and 380 of the Indian Penal Code. The average number of house-breakings and thefts in the district was 133 per year. The statistics revealed that the incidence of this crime showed an upward trend. This was mainly due to adverse economic conditions and partly to criminal gangs.

Riots and disturbances also showed an upward trend, consequent on the rise in number of land disputes and petty quarrels.

There were no offences in the category of sex crimes in recent years. It can be said that the number of rape and other sexual offences is almost negligible.

The district has been free from armed or highway dacoities. Highway robberies occur here and there but their number is small.

Other offences

Offences under special and local laws as also the nuisance section of the Indian Penal Code showed some variations in the past two decades.

The table appended at the end of the chapter (Statement 'B') indicates the number of cases reported to the police under various special and local laws for the years 1945 to 1964.

An analysis of the table appended reveals a perceptible upward trend in the incidence of certain types of offences and a decline in some other categories. The increase of offences in respect of public nuisances is due to rash and negligent driving of motor vehicles in almost all the urban areas of the district and on the several arterial roads passing through the region. With the increase of lorry traffic on the Bombay-Bangalore highway which passes through the district, control on speed and scrutiny on driving have become very necessary. Though erring motor drivers who contravene the law are being booked and punished in large numbers, the number of offences under this category showed a marked increase.

The district police have started a vigilant drive to check all licences under the Arms Act. Periodical checking of licences has revealed several lapses in the matter of renewal and the use of

time-barred permits. Suitable steps have been taken to check all possible contraventions in the matter. Those whose licences had expired and had not been renewed, had to pay penalty.

Under the Prevention of Animal Sacrifices Act, a perceptible decrease in incidence is noticed and the police have undertaken strict patrol and checking of all possible lapses.

Infringements under several sections of the Indian Motor Vehicles Act have been on the increase. In spite of the sustained efforts of the police in putting down these infringements, offences were on the increase. Gazetted Officers serving in the district have been empowered to personally check and report any lapses on the part of motor drivers.

Offences under the Suppression of Immoral Traffic Act have shown large variations since the year 1955. From 80 cases in 1962 in had decreased to 5 in 1964. The statutory control on immoral traffic is of recent origin, but the authorities in the district have been making vigorous efforts to track down offenders.

Gambling, other than Satta, is prevalent in the district. The police systematically raid gambling dens situated in lanes and by-lanes and book the offenders. In 1964, 77 cases were reported as against 82 in 1958 and 30 in 1957. Having regard to the increase in incidence, the district police have initiated improvements in vigilance. Satta gambling has shown a decrease in recent years.

The large number of cases under the Mysore Prohibition Act shows the extent to which the evil has grown, though the authorities are sparing no efforts to stamp it out. Illicit distillation has increased in recent years and efforts are being made to prevent it by prompt vigilance of the police squads. The following table indicates the number of illicit distillation cases in the district from the year 1948 to 1963:—

ILLICIT DISTILLATIONS.

Year			*Reported*	*Convicted*
1948	..	..	147	138
1949	..	..	167	155
1950	..	..	113	106
1951	..	..	173	161
1952	..	..	279	245
1953	..	..	195	154
1954	..	..	201	173
1955	..	..	287	233
1956	..	..	155	104

Year			*Reported*	*Convicted*
1957	..	..	434	338
1958	..	..	267	178
1959	..	..	299	279
1960	..	..	699	609
1961	..	..	728	698
1962	..	..	505	490
1963	..	..	437	401

Accidental deaths

Accidental deaths have to be reported to the police, so that the real causes of death may be ascertained. The police investigate into the causes of all cases of accidental deaths by sending the bodies for post-mortem examination. Inquest proceedings are the common feature of these happenings. After the necessary formalities, the bodies are handed over to the relatives.

The table appended at the end of the chapter as Statement 'C' gives an idea of the incidence of accidental deaths in the district for the years from 1945 to 1964.

The following table indicates the number of cases put up for trial by the police in respect of offences under the Motor Vehicles Act in the year 1964.

Defective vehicles	..	..	15
Non-payment of tax	..	..	15
Over-speeding	..	..	52
Using dazzling lights	..	..	67
Violation of traffic rules	..	..	82
Violation of route permits	..	..	101
Driving without licence	..	..	220
Overloading in buses	..	..	804
Other minor offences	..	..	3,500

The number of bicycles is considerably on the increase in urban areas adding greatly to the problem of traffic control.

The percentage of cases ending in conviction in law courts has shown no marked variations. The average for the district was about 35 per cent. The following table shows the number of cases put up for trial and the number of cases ending in conviction during the years from 1957 to 1964:—

Year		*Cases put up*	*Convicted*	*Percentage*
1957	..	503	171	37.5
1958	..	548	186	36.5
1959	..	611	184	32.2
1960	..	814	204	26.9

Year		*Cases put up*	*Convicted*	*Percentage*
1961	..	542	167	32.0
1962	..	951	218	23.39
1963	..	757	190	25.57
1964	..	596	183	30.6

Jails and Lock-ups

At the time of the rendition in 1881, the headquarters town of Chitradurga had a jail which was later converted into a lock-up. This lock-up was under the direct control of the Chief Judge of Mysore who was also the Inspector-General of Prisons. Revised rules for the management of district and taluk lock-ups were approved in December 1892. In areas where there were Munsiffs of the Judicial Department, the administration of lock-ups was entrusted to them. In other places, the Amildars, Sub-Registrars or the Deputy Amildars were in charge of lock-ups. The Chief Judge of Mysore continued to look after the prison administration till January 1897. In 1898, the supervision of lock-ups was transferred to Medical Officers and this is being continued even now in the district.

The British Indian Act XXVI of 1870—the Prisons Act—was introduced in Mysore in the year 1879. At present, the management of lock-ups is regulated by the Mysore Lock-up Manual of 1917.

There are two lock-ups in the district, one at the headquarters town of Chitradurga and the other in the industrial town of Davangere. The Chitradurga lock-up is known as the District Lock-up and the one in Davangere is called the Special Lock-up. The capacity of the District Lock-up at Chitradurga is 54 and that of the Special Lock-up at Davangere is 35.

These lock-ups have a number of wards where persons are lodged in groups. At day-break, the various wards are unlocked and the inmates are let out into the open. All the wards are thoroughly cleaned. During the short period the prisoners are let out, they are allowed to have their wash after which they are sent to the work spot for doing manual labour. Convicts are not allowed into their wards during the day except on account of inclemency of weather, sickness or other causes.

The District Lock-up at Chitradurga and the Special Lock-up at Davangere are maintained for short-term convicts sentenced to terms of imprisonment below two months and also under-trial prisoners. Long-term prisoners are sent to the Central Prison at Bangalore, Bellary or Mysore.

Under-trial prisoners lodged in these lock-ups are not given any work. Insubordination and indiscipline are punished according to rules.

Classification of Prisoners

Prisoners in the two lock-ups in the district are lodged according to the classification recommended by the convicting judicial officers. There are three classifications generally given to prisoners, A, B and C, according to the status and station in life of the convicted men or women. The A class prisoners are housed separately with special amenities. They are allowed to get their own food subject to certain regulations.

The number of under-trial prisoners lodged in the Chitradurga Lock-up varies according to the number of crimes committed. The same is the case with the Special Lock-up at Davangere. Statistics furnished by the Prisons Department go to show that from 1963 to 1965, 500 under-trial prisoners were lodged in Chitradurga Lock-up and 900 in the Special Lock-up at Davangere.

Prison Reforms

The prison administration has undergone rapid changes in recent years and the prisoners are now allowed certain amenities which go a long way in making them useful citizens after their release. In the days of old, only dhobi sand was allowed for washing. Now-a-days washing soap is supplied to all prisoners. On medical grounds, soapnut powder, castor or gingelly oil is supplied once in a fortnight. On Sundays, the prisoners are allowed to have a hot water bath. They can have cold water baths daily. Butter-milk was being given only once a week. According to recent reforms, this is supplied at 8 ounces per head every day. The prisoners are allowed to have post-cards for carrying on correspondence with their legal advisers and others. They are permitted to buy toilet soaps and approved books at their own cost. Sweets are supplied to all prisoners on important national days and festival days like the Independence day, Mahatma Gandhi Jayanthi day, Dasara, Yugadi, Ramzan, Christmas and Basava Jayanthi.

Women Prisoners

Women prisoners are lodged in these lock-ups in separate blocks, under the care of Women Warders. The Chitradurga District Lock-up has on an average five female prisoners every month and at Davangere the average ranges between four to eight.

Medical attention is provided by the Medical Officers who are also in charge of the lock-ups. They visit these lock-ups periodically, to assure the maintenance of good health and sanitation.

Prison Administration

According to Article 4 of the Mysore Lock-up Manual, the Inspector-General of Prisons who has his headquarters in Bangalore exercises general control over the district lock-ups. The Deputy Commissioner of the district also exercises supervision over

the lock-ups. The executive control of lock-ups in the district is vested in the District Surgeon, Chitradurga and the Medical Officer, Chigateri General Hospital, Davangere. There is one Head Warder for the Chitradurga Lock-up and one Chief Warder for the Special Lock-up at Davangere. The headquarters lock-up has six warders and the Davangere Lock-up has eight warders.

A Board of Visitors has been set up for each of the lock-ups to suggest ways and means to promote the welfare of the prisoners.

The general welfare of the prisoners has been satisfactory. Since the lock-ups are mere correctional houses, no facility for religious teaching or general education exists.

Administration of Justice

The dispensation of justice in the district assumed its present shape after many changes based on patterns obtaining in the rest of India, during the days of the British regime. In the pre-rendition period, the courts of original jurisdiction were the Amil Courts and Town Munsiffs' Courts. Above these courts, the Principal Sadar Munsiff's Court and the Courts of European Superintendents had both original and appellate jurisdictions. The highest courts of appeal were the Huzur Adalat and the Commissioner's Court. The Amildars were invested with powers to decide suits within Rs. 100 and the Town Munsiffs had jurisdiction to decide suits not exceeding Rs. 500. Principal Sadar Munsiffs were appointed in each division and had powers to decide all original uits above Rs. 100 and not exceeding Rs. 1,000. The Sadar Munsiffs' Courts were courts of appeal arising out of Amil Court's decisions. All original suits of the value of Rs. 1,000 and above were decided by the courts of European Superintendents. The Huzur Adalat was the highest court of appeal attached to the Commissioner's Office. In 1856, a separate Judicial Commissioner was appointed to assist the Commissioner. Under the revised constitution of the then Mysore Administration, the Huzur Adalat and the Munsiffs' Courts were abolished. There were only the Judicial Commissioner, Superintendents of Divisions, Deputy Superintendents of Districts, Judges of the Small Cause Courts European Assistant Superintendents, Indian Assistant Superintendents and Amildars doing judicial work. Later on, Assistant Superintendents were relieved of civil work and Judicial Assistants were appointed. Instead of Amildars doing civil judicial work, Munsiffs were appointed. In 1879, the Deputy Commissioners of districts ceased to have any civil jurisdiction and in their place District Judges were appointed. Sub-Judges took the place of Judicial Assistants. In 1884, a Chief Court was set up in Bangalore with the Chief Judge as the head of judicial administration. This was the period after the rendition when the administration of the State passed into the hands of the Maharaja. The Chief

Court was the highest court of appeal and had powers of superintendence and control over all the other courts in the State. The courts subordinate to the Chief Court exercised unlimited original jurisdiction within the areas specified. The Shimoga District Judge's Court had jurisdiction also over the Chitradurga district and this position continued till 1st October 1964, after which a separate District Court was established for the revenue district of Chitradurga.

Regarding criminal justice, the Criminal Procedure Code of 1872 was made applicable to the State in that year. As a step towards the separation of civil and criminal functions of the Judicial Department, the question of formation of Munsiffs' Courts engaged the attention of Government. The civil powers of the Deputy Commissioners were curtailed and in 1879, the scheme of separation of civil and criminal work was completed. Subsequent to the rendition, during 1881-1924, the administration of criminal justice was the sole responsibility of the Chief Judge who exercised the powers of a High Court as described in the respective Codes. The criminal courts of the State consisted of Sessions and Assistant Sessions Judges, District Magistrates, and Magistrates of the first, second and third classes. The Sessions Court at Shimoga exercised jurisdiction over Chitradurga district also till the year 1964, after which a separate Sessions Court was established at Chitradurga. The Deputy Commissioner of the revenue district of Chitradurga became the District Magistrate. Separation of the executive from judicial functions was the next experiment introduced in the Shimoga Division in 1910. This new scheme envisaged a separate agency for the disposal of original criminal work by three grades of Magistrates with assigned powers. Assistant Commissioners in charge of revenue sub-divisions, Amildars and Deputy Amildars continued to be *ex-officio* Magistrates but ceased to exercise magisterial functions except those of an executive character.

Civil Justice

The administration of civil justice in the district is now under the control of the Mysore High Court consisting of the Chief Justice and other Judges appointed by the President under the relevant sections of the Indian Constitution. The District Judge of Chitradurga, having his headquarters at Chitradurga, is the highest judicial authority in the district.

Civil justice in the district is administered by the District Judge, Chitradurga, Civil Judge, Chitradurga, and two Munsiffs, one stationed at the headquarters town and the other at Davangere. The District Judge has powers to inspect the Civil Judge's Court and other subordinate courts in the district. As nominee of the High Court, he can also inspect the Criminal Courts in the

district. The District Judge is appointed by Government in consultation with the High Court. Appellate powers are given to the District Judge to assess and determine all civil cases decided by the Civil Judge, the value of which does not exceed Rs. 20,000 and all cases decided by the Subordinate Courts in the area.

The cases handled in the Civil Courts of the district are usually small causes and proceedings connected therewith, cases relating to insolvency, succession certificates, Guardian and Wards Act, Hindu Marriage Act, House Rent and Accommodation Control Act and divorces. The suits entertained relate to property disputes, partition cases and other pecuniary interests. The following table indicates the number of suits instituted, disposed of and pending in all the Civil Courts of the district for 1964-65 :—

Name of the Court	*Instituted during the year*	*Disposed of during the year*	*Pending on 31st March 1965*
	Original Suits		
(1) District Court, Chitradurga	1	..	1
(2) Civil Judge's Court, Chitradurga ..	31	15	25
(3 Munsiffs' Courts in Chitradurga District ..	1,649	1,681	830
	Small Cause Suits		
(1) Munsiffs' Courts ..	151	155	43
Total ...	**1,832**	**1,851**	**899**

The Courts of the Civil Judge and the Munsiff at Chitradurga are housed in the District Office building. There is a separate court building at Davangere housing the Munsiff's Court. The new District Court is at present housed in the old District Board building near the district offices.

Separation of the judiciary from the executive was effected in the district from 1st June 1956, by replacing the Court of the Sub-Judge-*cum*-First Class Magistrate by that of Civil Judge.

Criminal Justice

The highest judicial authority on the criminal side also is the District Judge. The District Judge exercises supervision over the Special First Class Magistrate, Davangere, and the First Class Magistrate at Chitradurga who are subordinate judicial officers on the criminal side. The Special First Class Magistrate stationed in Davangere exercises jurisdiction over Davangere, Harihar, Holalkere and Jagalur taluks, while the First Class Magistrate,

Chitradurga, has jurisdiction over Chitradurga, Challakere, Hosadurga, Molakalmuru and Hiriyur taluks. In addition to these courts, the Assistant Commissioners and the Tahsildars are empowered to do the functions of Executive Magistrates with no separate courts but exercising magisterial jurisdiction in their respective areas. The Special First Class Magistrates at Davangere and the First Class Magistrate at Chitradurga exercise powers vested in them under the Criminal Procedure Code.

There is also a Court of Sessions in Chitradurga. The District and Sessions Judge of Chitradurga is empowered to try cases committed to him by the Magistrates at Chitradurga and Davangere. The appeals and revisions from the judgments and orders passed by the other subordinate Magistrates are decided by the Sessions Judge in Chitradurga.

The functions of Executive Magistrates relate to the maintenance of law and order. The Deputy Commissioner of the district is the District Magistrate for law and order. The *ex-officio* First Class Magistrate, Chitradurga, the *ex-officio* First Class Magistrate, Davangere (Sub-Divisional Officers) and the Tahsildars of all taluks who have Second Class Magisterial powers are subordinate to the District Magistrate for law and order, who in turn is responsible to the head of the judiciary in the district. The prevention of unlawful assemblies and the issue of licences for firearms are some of the functions of these Executive Magistrates.

The statistics of cases dealt with in the Criminal Courts for the year 1964-65 are given below :—

Name of the Court	*Nature of Cases*	*Instituted during 1964-65*	*Disposed of during 1964-65*	*Pending on 31-3-1965*
(1) Court of the Sessions Judge.	(a) Sessions cases ..	13	9	4
	(b) Special (Crl.) Cases ..	14	..	14
	(c) Crl. Misc. cases ..	6	6	..
(2) Courts of the Magistrates.	(a) Criminal cases ..	7,922	7,871	327
	(b) Crl. Misc. cases ..	667	641	84
Total ..	..	8,622	8,527	429

There is a Juvenile Court in Davangere to dispose of cases coming under the Mysore Children's Act.

Legal Practitioners

There were, in 1965, about 150 legal practitioners in the district, mainly in the two towns of Chitradurga and Davangere. There are two Bar Associations, one in Chitradurga and the other at Davangere with facilities of libraries and study rooms.

STATEMENT 'A'

INCIDENCE OF COGNISABLE CRIMES IN CHITRADURGA DISTRICT DURING THE YEARS 1945-1964.

Year	*Total Cog. Crimes reported (I. P. C. only)*	*Rioting*	*Offences relating to coins*	*Offences relating to currency notes and Bank Notes*	*Murder*	*Culpable homicide not amounting to murder.*	*Administering stupefying drugs*	*Kidnapping and abduction*	*Dacoity*	*Robbery*	*House-breaking and Theft*	*Cheating*	*Breach of trust*
1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	11	12	13	14
1945	562	11	..	..	12	2	..	8	1	6	106	9	6
1946	447	17	..	..	10	..	1	4	4	7	77	2	13
1947	568	52	..	..	10	3	..	2	10	5	125	4	11
1948	616	34	..	..	13	4	..	2	3	3	167	3	12
1949	448	24	..	..	15	1	..	1	5	4	126	2	5
1950	549	26	..	..	14	1	..	6	6	5	103	6	10
1951	585	17	..	..	19	..	..	7	1	6	109	6	13
1952	525	18	1	1	20	..	..	3	4	6	127	6	23
1953	736	24	..	..	12	6	..	2	4	3	166	3	30
1954	527	17	..	.	17	3	1	2	1	6	127	5	14
1955	503	26	..	..	15	..	..	1	1	6	80	6	13
1956	537	14	1	..	17	..	..	2	1	1	83	10	19
1957	766	27	..	..	15	2	.	8	2	6	122	13	18
1958	715	51	..	.	12	1	..	4	1	3	97	20	11
1959	758	36	..	.	14	.	..	4	2	2	127	7	15
1960	945	75	..	1	14	..	2	4	1	..	149	5	25
1961	867	84	..	2	20	..	1	5	1	4	143	3	12
1962	744	41	..	..	12		..	3	..	7	172	[illegible]	36
1963	792	37	1	..	17	..	3	4	1	4	167	12	17
1964	1,008	56	..	..	16	..	1	9	0	10	240	11	32

STATEMENT 'B'

INCIDENCE OF OFFENCES REPORTED IN CHITRADURGA DISTRICT UNDER VARIOUS SPECIAL AND LOCAL LAWS DURING THE YEARS 1945-1964.

Sl. No.	Offences	1945	1946	1947	1948	1949	1950	1951	1952	1953	1954	1955	1956	1957	1958	1959	1960	1961	1962	1963	1964
(1)	Public Nuisance	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	23	5	19	39	33	42	57	75	75	84	96
(2)	Arms Act	3	3	1	3	3	2	6	3	1	2	..	3	6	3	8	5	15	19	3	2
(3)	Opium Act	..	.	..	..	.	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	.	..	..	..	1	..	..	..
(4)	Prevention of Animal Sacrifice Act.	..	.	.	..	..	..	..	..	..	4	..	..	..	1	5	1	1	1	..	..
(5)	Mysore Lotteries and Prizes Act.	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	1	..	..	..	11	1	..	..	..	..	..
(6)	Prevention of Cow Slaughter Act	8	13	7	7	2	1	4	10	9	7	1	..	4	1	5	3	5	1	2	2
(7)	Motor Vehicles Act	590	597	749	878	927	635	429	1,436	493	1,396	414	414	2,778	2,597	4,274	4,753	7,514	6.856	3,612	4,856
(8)	Suppression of Immoral Traffic Act	..	..	.	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	25	..	..	2	18	40	32	80	7	5
(9)	Other Gambling	3	4	.	5	6	2	10	..	12	16	31	4	13	82	95	142	118	97	103	77
(10)	Satta Gambling	3	11	5	3	3	9	5	..	12	16	6	2	27	43	41	16	20	1	6	6
(11)	Betting on Horse Race	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..
(12)	Infant Marriage Act	.	.	.	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..
(13)	Coffee Stealing Act	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..
(14)	Infringement of Trade Mark	..	..	..	..	.	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..
(15)	Press Objectionable Act	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..
(16)	Cattle Trespass Act	.	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..
(17)	Indian Explosives Act	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	1	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	1	..
(18)	Prohibition of Begging Act	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	10	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..
(19)	Prevention of Corruption Act	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	2	..	..	1	..	..	1	..	..	1	..
(20)	Habitual Offenders Act	..	..	..	2	2	..	1	..	..	..	2	2	6	8	6	7	3	4	7	3
(21)	Preventive Detention Act	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..
(22)	Mysore Police Act	180	250	533	466	278	338	..	266	435	687	1,019	292	902	1,046	1,399	1,416	2,628	1,767	2,066	1,014
(23)	Untouchability Act	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	1	2	1	..	1	3	4	2	1	..	..	2
(24)	Cruelty to Animals Act	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	11	1	..	..	..	..	1
(25)	Weights and Measures Act	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	5	14	15	4	..	4	5	..
(26)	Mysore Prohibition Act	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	2,177	3,811	5,568	5,376	5,591	5,389	3 532	3,208	2,582

STATEMENT 'C'

INCIDENCE OF ACCIDENTAL DEATHS IN CHITRADURGA DISTRICT DURING THE YEARS 1945-1964

Sl. No.	Category		1945	1946	1947	1948	1949	1950	1951	1952	1953	1954	1955	1956	1957	1958	1959	1960	1961	1962	1963	1964
1	Accidental drowning	..	88	130	76	110	65	109	..	106	132	108	102	100	113	115	108	98	126	108	123	120
2	Snake bites	..	50	21	12	20	10	11	..	16	7	7	17	2	16	24	15	3	9	15	11	11
3	By wild beasts	..	5	2	2	1	3	4	..	3	2	4	..	3	1	1	1	1	3	1	4	..
4	Burns	..	5	8	..	8	12	8	..	3	5	6	6	6	8	8	11	6	5	4	15	8
5	Electric shock	..	1	1	..	2	2	2	..	6	3	7	2	..	1	2	2	3	..	6	5	9
6	Lightning	..	1	3	2	3	..	5	..	2	2	4	..	..	3	6	..	..	7	..	3	..
7	Mining accidents	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	1	2	3	..	..	..	..	6
8	Motor accidents	..	..	..	..	3	..	7	..	1	1	7	3	4	2	2	24	16	3	16	18	..
9	Railway accidents	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	2	..	1	..
10	Fall from heights	..	27	8	10	11	7	9	..	14	16	21	10	8	14	3	5	4	14	14	11	11
11	Crushed by weights	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	4	..	6
12	Gunshot accidents	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	1	..	..	..	..	..	..
13	Poisoning	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	2	5	11	21	28
14	Other causes	..	29	32	38	25	12	27	..	15	18	26	43	7	62	57	39	22	40	39	32	41

CHAPTER XIII

OTHER DEPARTMENTS

IN the previous chapters, the work of some of the important administrative departments has been dealt with, keeping in view their gradual growth, necessitated by the needs of a Welfare State. The organisational set-up of various other departments like Public Works, Agriculture, Industries, Food Supplies, Transport, Commercial Taxes has been described in this Chapter. The progress achieved in the activities of some of these departments has been noticed in earlier chapters and hence only their administrative set-up has been dealt with here.

Agricultural Department

The District Agricultural Officer is responsible for the agricultural activities in the district*. Recently, an Additional District Agricultural Officer has been posted to assist the District Agricultural Officer in the intensification of agricultural production. There are two gazetted technical officers called Project Officers stationed at Davangere and Hiriyur for oil-seeds development. For the agricultural development of the Bhadra channel area, there is a Class II Special Officer attached to the office of the district Agricultural Officer. Each Community Development Block is provided with Agricultural Extension Officers, who are twelve in number. For purposes of plant protection, there are two Plant Protection Assistants in the office of the District Agricultural Officer. There is a Compost Demonstrator for the entire district, working under the District Agricultural Officer. There is also an Oil-seeds Demonstrator for the whole district. The tractors and bulldozers are managed by a Foreman at the headquarters town of Chitradurga. In addition to these technical officers, there are in all six Sub-divisional Soil Conservation Officers working under the Divisional Soil Conservation Officer. In order to step up cotton production in the district, there is one Cotton Superintendent working in the District Agricultural Office. Each taluk in the district has a Field Assistant, besides five Agricultural Demonstrators in the district.

*In January 1967, the departmental set-up was being re-organised with a Deputy Director of Agriculture at the district level, assisted by two Assistant Directors in charge of Hiriyur and Davangere agricultural sub-divisions.

Animal Husbandry Department

The animal husbandry activities of the district are being attended to by the District Officer, Animal Husbandry and Veterinary Services who is responsible to the Director of Animal Husbandry and Veterinary Services in Mysore, Bangalore. This Officer looks after the veterinary institutions and gives directions to the veterinarians who are actually manning the veterinary hospitals and dispensaries. Stockmen or locally-trained personnel are stationed in various rural areas of the district and are under the overall guidance and control of the veterinary officers stationed in the taluk headquarters. The veterinary staff at the taluk headquarters are primarily responsible for the health of livestock within their respective areas. The District Officer has to supervise the work of the stockmen working in the rural areas and, in times of emergency, he has powers to post the stockmen anywhere within the taluk area.

Archaeological Department

The Department of Archaeology, Mysore, has under its control the Antiquities Museum in Chitradurga town, the staff of which consists of one Honorary Curator and one Attender. The Honorary Curator is the officer in charge of the Museum and is directly responsible to the Director of Archaeology. The Curator has to look after the Museum, display the objects, augment the collection of antiquities and explain to the visitors the nature and historical importance of the objects displayed there.

Civil Supplies Department

The work of civil supplies in the district of Chitradurga is attended to by one Assistant Inspector with his headquarters in Chitradurga town. He is subordinate to the Deputy Commissioner of the district and works under the supervision of the Inspector of Civil Supplies, Shimoga Division. The jurisdiction of the Assistant Inspector is limited to Chitradurga district. The duties of the Assistant Inspector include checking of accounts of the dealers of iron, steel and scrap metal, enforcing of licence rules and regulations in respect of cotton dealers of the district and generally carrying out the instructions issued by the Controller of Civil Supplies and the Deputy Commissioner. The Assistant Inspector is now designated as Assistant Inspector of Civil Supplies and Iron and Steel, Chitradurga district. He has also to check the accounts of kerosene oil dealers under the powers delegated to him under the Kerosene Oil Control Act of 1965. He works under the Assistant Director of Industries and Commerce, Chitradurga district.

Commercial Taxes Department

There are three Commercial Tax Officers in the district, one at Chitradurga and the other two at Davangere to attend to the work of assessment under the Mysore Commercial Tax Act, 1956. Subordinate to these three officers, three posts of Assistant Commercial Tax Officers have been sanctioned, one for the district headquarters town and two for Davangere. The officers are directly responsible to the Deputy Commissioner of Commercial Taxes,

Bangalore Division, and the Commissioner of Commercial Taxes, Bangalore, who is the head of the Department. The assessing powers of the Commercial Tax Officers extend to Rs. 40,000 and above, while the assessing powers of the Assistant Commercial Tax Officers are restricted to a turn-over limit of Rs. 40,000, under the Mysore Sales Tax Act, 1956. The Assistant Commercial Tax Officer is also required to perform duties under the Mysore Entertainment Tax Act.

Co-operative Department

The Deputy Registrar, Co-operative Societies, Chitradurga, exercises general supervision over the working of co-operative institutions in the district. Under him, there are two Assistant Registrars, one each for the revenue sub-divisions. There are Inspectors of Co-operative Societies and Co-operative Extension Officers in each taluk. Each Inspector and Co-operative Extension Officer is assisted by a process server and a peon. The Deputy Registrar with his headquarters at Chitradurga is directly responsible to the Joint Registrar and to the Registrar. The Inspectors and Co-operative Extension Officers are responsible to the Assistant Registrar. The Assistant Registrar accords sanction for starting of new societies and arranges auditing of accounts; he has also to implement the Five-Year Plan schemes. The Inspectors of Co-operative Societies and Co-operation Extension Officers have to inspect all the societies in their respective circles. They have to inspect at least six societies in a month. They should also arrange to convene general body meetings of all the societies in the taluk, after the completion of the annual audit which is attended to by Junior and Senior District and Special Auditors. The Inspectors have to ensure expeditious work under the plan programmes.

Education Department

The District Educational Officer is responsible for the administration and control of all the primary schools in the district.

Under him, there are two Assistant District Educational Officers for the two revenue sub-divisions, *viz.*, Chitradurga and Davangere. These two officers are also of gazetted rank.

In addition to the above personnel, there are eleven Inspectors and eleven Deputy Inspectors placed in different taluks of the district and also in the headquarters. The inspection of rural primary schools has been left to the concerned Inspectors of Schools. The Deputy Director of Public Instruction, Chitradurga, is responsible for the administration and control of all the high schools in the district.

The District Educational Officer is responsible to the Deputy Director of Public Instruction, Chitradurga Division, who in turn is answerable to the Director of Public Instruction, Bangalore, who is the head of the Education Department.

Fisheries Department

The Assistant Superintendent of Fisheries, Chitradurga district, is in charge of the fisheries development activities in the district. His headquarters is at Vanivilaspura. He is under the administrative control of the Director of Fisheries, Bangalore. The Assistant Superintendent is assisted by two Assistant Inspectors of Fisheries, fishery watchers and fishermen. The headquarters of one Assistant Fisheries Inspector is at Chitradurga and of the other at Vanivilaspura. The Assistant Superintendent of Fisheries and the Assistant Fisheries Inspectors have to enforce fishing regulations under the Mysore Game and Fish Preservation Regulation of 1901. In general, they have to conserve fisheries resources and to regulate catching of fishes in rivers, tanks and reservoirs.

Food Supplies Department

The Deputy Commissioner of Chitradurga is in charge of the work of food supplies in the district and he is responsible to the Director of Food Supplies in so far as the work of this department is concerned. There is a Food Assistant who assists the Deputy Commissioner in this work. The Tahsildars of taluks attend to the work of the department in the taluks.

Forest Department

The organisation of the Forest Department at the district level is in charge of the Divisional Forest Officer whose office is located in Chitradurga town. The Divisional Forest Officer is directly responsible to the Conservator of Forests, Bellary Circle, Bellary. There are Range Forest Officers, Foresters and Forest Guards to assist the Divisional Forest Officer. The successive Five-Year Plans have provided for large-scale afforestation work. In order to cope with this extra work, temporary personnel were drafted in various categories, like nursery workers, caretakers, plantation watchers, foresters, checking guards and forest guards.

Horticultural Department

For purposes of horticultural development in the district, there is one District Horticultural Inspector stationed in Chitradurga town and he is responsible directly to the Director of Horticulture, Bangalore. The District Inspector attends to all horticultural works like granting of fruit culture loans, supply of plants, seeds and insecticides and inspection of lands where fruits and vegetables are grown. He is also the *ex-officio* Secretary of the District Horticultural Society. He has under him one plant propagator, fieldmen and some office staff.

Industries Department

The Assistant Director, Industries and Commerce, Chitradurga, is in charge of the work of the Department of Industries and Commerce in the district. The work of this department is mainly confined to the development and progress of small-scale industries, large-scale industries and cottage industries. The officer in charge of this work is responsible to the Director of Industries and Commerce, Bangalore. The Assistant Director is assisted by one Senior Industrial Supervisor, one Junior Industrial Supervisor and

some ministerial staff, besides one Extension Officer (Industries) for each taluk to look after the work connected with small-scale and village industries. All loan applications preferred under the State Aid to Industries Act to the Director of Industries and Commerce are sent to the Assistant Director of Industries of the district for investigation and he sends a report after enquiry. Requisitions for import of raw materials and machinery required for various types of industries are checked up by the Assistant Director upon whose report necessary essentiality certificates are issued. The officer is also required to collect whenever necessary statistical data of all the industries located in the district. Possibilities and potentialities of starting new industrial units are also investigated by him. Industrial exhibitions for the popularisation of industrial arts are aften held and these are arranged by the Assistant Director, after being approved by the Director. The Assistant Director of Industries and Commerce in the Chitradurga district is in over-all charge of the industrial schools in the area.

Labour Department

Originally, the protection of labour interests in the district was under the jurisdiction of the Labour Officer, Bhadravathi. As the industrialisation of the district took a rapid stride in Davangere and Harihar, the Government opened a separate labour office for the entire district with headquarters at Davangere, from 8th October 1965. The Inspector of Factories, Shimoga Division, has got jurisdiction over the Chitradurga district also. The Labour Officer at Davangere works under the Assistant Labour Commissioner, Mysore Division, Mysore. There are five Labour Inspectors working under the Labour Officer. The Labour Officer is the conciliation officer under the Industrial Disputes Act and performs the functions assigned to him under the Payment of Wages Act, Minimum Wages Act, Mysore Industrial Establishments (National and Festival Holidays) Act, Working Journalists and Miscellaneous Provisions Act and Payment of Bonus Act. He is also notified as Additional Inspector under the Mysore Factories Act.

Mysore Housing Board

In the organisational set-up of the Mysore Housing Board, there is no separate district officer. The Executive Engineer, Mysore Housing Board, who is stationed at Hubli, looks after the works of the Board in this district also, through the Assistant Engineer, Mysore Housing Board, Davangere, who is in charge of all the housing schemes in the district.

The jurisdiction of the Executive Engineer, Mysore Housing Board, having his headquarters at Hubli, comprises ten districts in the State, *i.e.*, Chitradurga, Shimoga, Dharwar, Belgaum, North Kanara, Bellary, Raichur, Bidar, Gulbarga and Bijapur.

The Assistant Engineer, Mysore Housing Board, Davangere Sub-Division, has got jurisdiction over two districts, *viz.*, Chitradurga and Shimoga and is in charge of all the housing schemes in these two districts.

These two officers are directly responsible to the Chairman, Mysore Housing Board at Bangalore. They and the executive subordinate staff are lent from the State Public Works Department. The Sub-Division has got seven executive subordinates, out of whom three are stationed at Davangere, one at Harihar, one at Chitradurga and the remaining two at Shimoga.

The Mysore Housing Board attends to the implementation of housing schemes, *viz.*, Subsidised Industrial Housing Scheme, Subsidised Rental Housing Scheme, Low-Income Group Housing Scheme and Middle-Income Group Housing Scheme, thus helping to ease the housing problem in the urban areas of the State.

Mysore State Electricity Board

The Executive Engineer (Electrical), Chitradurga, is in charge of the distribution, and maintenance of electrical installations in the district. He is directly responsible to the Chief Engineer of the Mysore State Electricity Board. The Executive Engineer (Electrical) is the administrative head of the Division for both the technical and administrative wings within defined monetary limits as prescribed in the rules. There are Assistant Engineers (Electrical) under the Executive Engineer. The Executive Engineer (Electrical), Chitradurga Division, carries out electrical development works in the area with special emphasis on power supply to the irrigation pump sets and rural electrification.

Mysore State Road Transport Corporation

The Chitradurga Depot of the Mysore State Road Transport Corporation is placed under the control of a Depot Manager who is directly responsible to the Deputy General Manager of the Bangalore Division, who is the administrative head of the unit. The Deputy General Manager is responsible to the General Manager of the Corporation. The Depot Manager is charged with the responsibility of operating the transport services regularly, according to schedule, providing relief in cases of accidents and breakdowns, catering to extra traffic when the need arises, maintenance of accounts of tickets, stores and cash, maintenance of vehicles, docking programme, provision of buses on casual contracts, and the like. The Depot Manager has to furnish statistics of operations and has to conduct line checking and to inspect control points within his jurisdiction. He is also the supervisory authority over the workshop attached to the Depot.

Public Works Department

The needs of the district in the sphere of public works are looked after by two Executive Engineers, one stationed at Davangere and the other at Chitradurga. Both these officers are immediately subordinate to the Superintending Engineer, Shimoga

Circle, Shimoga. The Executive Engineers are assisted by a number of Assistant Engineers, Junior Engineers and Supervisors and ministerial staff.

The Executive Engineers have been invested with a wide range of powers under the Public Works Code in order to carry out efficiently and expeditiously various civil works entrusted to their care. The powers and functions of the Executive Engineers have been specified but do not preclude variations according to the developmental needs of the district. The Executive Engineers have powers to accord administrative approval as well as technical sanction for various public works upto a monetary limit of Rs. 25,000, including irrigation works which are specifically provided for in the budget. As regards component parts of a project, the Executive Engineers have powers to accord technical sanction, if the approved limit does not exceed Rs. 10,000. Various powers in regard to repairs and special repairs have been enumerated, the limit in each case having been specified. As the calling for tenders has become an important feature in the execution of public works, various powers have been given to the Executive Engineers. These officers, both in Chitradurga and Davangere, have necessary powers to accept tenders up to Rs. one lakh, provided the excess of the tender amount over the sanctioned estimate is not more than 5 per cent of the latter. This is, however, subject to an over-all condition that in all cases, only the lower or the lowest of more than one tender should be accepted.

The Executive Engineers of the two Divisions are touring officers who have to go round their jurisdictional areas for purposes of detailed inspection of roads, buildings, bridges, irrigation works, canals and the like. The Executive Engineer is the *ex-officio* professional adviser to the Municipalities and Local Boards. He is a member of the Regional Transport Authority Committee and such other committees in the district. The Assistant Engineers are members of the Block Development Advisory Committees in their respective jurisdictions. There is an Assistant Engineer at Davangere in charge of the irrigational canal system under the Bhadra Reservoir Scheme.

Department of Publicity and Information

The District Publicity Officer is in charge of the Governmental publicity in the district. The office was opened on the 16th September 1965, to publicise the various activities of the Government and also the work executed under the successive Five-Year Plans.

The department also instals and looks after community radio sets in rural areas. There is a Radio Supervisor in Chitradurga who looks after these sets. There were in all 160 community receiving sets in the district, in 1965. Both the District Publicity Officer and the Radio Supervisor work under the control of the Director of Publicity and Information, Bangalore.

Social Welfare Department

The District Social Welfare Officer is in charge of the administration of the department in the district. He works as the executive assistant to the Deputy Commissioner in implementing the various social welfare schemes in the district. But he is under the administrative control of the Director of Social Welfare, Bangalore. He is assisted in his duties by social welfare inspectors, women welfare organisers, conductresses and superintendents of social welfare institutions. He is responsible for enforcement of the Untouchability Offences Act also. He has to promote the social, economic, educational and cultural interests of the Scheduled Castes, Scheduled Tribes and Denotified Tribes, with the co-operation of various district officers.

The department has established a Remand Home at Davangere for the observation and study of children who are taken in charge under the provisions of the Mysore Children's Act, 1964, which has been brought into operation in the taluk and municipal limits of Davangere. A Probation Officer-*cum*-Superintendent is in charge of the Remand Home and he has to study the children placed under his care and to collect information regarding their home conditions, antecedents, character and the like. The Probation Officer is under the direct control of the Chief Inspector of Certified Schools, Bangalore. He submits reports to the Magistrate, Juvenile Court, Davangere, who holds his sittings in the Remand Home twice a month.

Stamps Department

The Deputy Commissioner of the district is the Collector of Stamps. His powers are delegated to the Revenue Sub-Division Officers and the Headquarters Assistant to the Deputy Commissioner. The Collector of Stamps is directly responsible to the Commissioner of Stamps who is the head of the Stamps Department. The Collectors of Stamps are empowered to take suitable action under various sections of the Mysore Stamps Act. The Collectors have to deal with the documents which are brought to them for adjudication and to fix stamp duty and penalty on documents impounded and forwarded by Sub-Registrars.

Statistical Department

Till recently, the compilation of statistical information pertaining to the district was done by the Bangalore Divisional Statistician who had his headquarters in Bangalore. A separate District Statistical Office has been established to collect necessary statistical details. The office is in charge of a District Statistical Officer who is responsible to the Director of Statistics at Bangalore. This officer has to collect statistical data from various governmental departments, correlate, analyse and publicise them for public information, after approval from the head office in Bangalore. The officer belongs to the gazetted cadre of Statistical Officers.

CHAPTER XIV

LOCAL SELF-GOVERNMENT

THE history of local self-government in the district may be traced back to 1864 when the first Municipal Committee was set up. The municipal committee established in the district head-quarter town began to tackle for the first time the civic problems of the area. This was later on extended to taluk headquarter towns and some of the villages. In these municipal committees, several influential men with experience began earnestly to attend to the several problems concerning local self-government. Several branches of the official hierarchy were represented on the committees and the number so nominated did at no time exceed one-third of the total number of members. The State Government introduced, as and when necessary, proper regulations to conduct the day-to-day affairs of these civic bodies. In the rural areas where some practical difficulties existed in the way of forming regular Municipal Boards, the regulations were applied and enforced through the revenue officers. The next stage in the development of local self-government institutions was the allocation of funds. The income from *Mohatarfa* in Chitradurga town was assigned to the Committee. In order to further augment the resources of the Municipal Boards, the levy of a tax on individual houses from those who were exempted from the ordinary *Mohatarfa* was introduced. In 1879, the system of municipal taxation was revised and only a single tax was ordered to be levied on all residential houses except those exclusively used for religious and charitable purposes. **Early History**

In the post-rendition period, that is, after 1881, the Government, as a matter of policy, set about reforming the pattern and structure of Municipal Boards in the State. Later, in 1914, a committee was appointed to suggest various improvements. Immediately after this, a second committee was set up to assess the financial implications of the projected improvements. The reports of these two committees were published in 1915 and in the wake of these important reports, a Local Board conference was held in June 1915 to discuss the whole question of reforms. As a result of these deliberations, the Government passed orders effecting

certain changes in the municipal administration. All non-regulation municipalities were converted into several classified local self-governing bodies called City, Town and Minor Municipalities according to population and importance. The introduction of an elected majority in major municipalities and an increased elected element in other municipalities formed a particular feature of the reforms. Gradually, the control on primary education was transferred to local bodies. In 1918, the number of elected seats on the Town Municipal Councils was increased from one-third to one-half of the entire strength. The strength of *ex-officio* councillors on the Town Councils was reduced as years went by. The amended Municipal Regulations of 1918 gave more powers to the elected councils.

District Boards

Originally, the administration of local funds was entrusted to the District Fund Circle in the district. The Board which manned the Circle was presided over by the highest revenue officer, and consisted of seven non-official members and several officers. As a measure of improvement, the Mysore Local Boards Regulation of 1902 was ushered in, superseding all previous orders. Under this regulation, Taluk Boards were set up in all the nine taluks of the district. In the same year, another local self-governing institution called the District Board was also constituted, consisting of elected representatives from the taluks. In the early years, 76 per cent of the local cess on *abkari*, forest and other items except land revenue constituted the finances of the local funds. This was reduced to 67 per cent in 1903. The District Boards ran schools and dispensaries and looked after the roads in the interior. The sanitation and public health needs of the district, except in areas where municipalities existed, were attended to by the District Board. By another regulation in 1921, called the Mysore Local Boards and Village Panchayats Amending Regulation, the development of the economic condition of the district with particular attention to education, agriculture and industries was included in the administrative purview of the District Board. This empowered the District Board to levy an education cess not exceeding one anna in the rupee on all items of revenue. The District Board was, however, dissolved in November 1959.

Prior to the constitution of a village panchayat in every village or group of villages, Improvement Committees were in existence for sometime. Each panchayat consisted of not less than five and not more than 12 members, half of whom were elected by popular vote. In the earlier stages, the panchayat chairman was nominated by the Government. Later on, when the panchayats were well-established, the right of electing a chairman was conceded. The obligatory functions of the panchayats were village sanitation, communications and general welfare of the rural population. This, in brief, is the early history of local self-government in the district.

There are 12 municipal councils in the district, *viz*., the City Municipal Council, Davangere and Town Municipal Councils at Chitradurga, Challakere, Harihar, Hiriyur, Molakalmuru, Mayakonda, Turuvanur, Hosadurga, Holalkere, Jagalur and Nayakanahatti. In the next few pages, a description of the organisation and structure, powers and duties, financial resources and special achievements of these institutions is given.

Davangere City Municipality

The City Municipal Council at Davangere was constituted under the provisions of the Mysore City Municipalities Act of 1933, as amended from time to time. The total municipal area is 7.5 sq. miles or 19.4 sq. kilometres and the population, according to the 1961 census, was 78,124. The city is divided into 11 equal divisions, each division electing three councillors. Before presenting a picture of the civic activities of this growing town, it is worth-while mentioning the developmental activities which transformed it into a busy industrial area on the Poona—Bangalore highway. The city has been divided into two parts by the metre gauge railway line, the old town lying to the east and the new town springing up on the west. In the old days, the Anekonda village at the southern extremity of the town was only a slum, with no roads, sanitation or water supply. Now, the area has grown into an important industrial region with big textile mills, agricultural godowns and offices. Towards the west of the railway line and in close proximity to the High School, a beautiful residential extension has grown which is named after H.H. Sri Jayachamaraja Wadiyar. According to the figures available in the 1961 census reports, there were 13,900 occupied houses in the city.

Elections are held once in four years under the City Municipalities Act and the 33 councillors choose their president and vice-president. The day-to-day administration of the Municipality is handled by a Commissioner drawn usually from the senior ranks of the Revenue Department. There is an engineer and a health officer exclusively for the Municipality.

Finances.—The total receipts of the Municipality during 1964-65 were Rs. 23,39,851 as against Rs. 13,31,793 in 1957-58. The total expenditure was Rs. 24,89,194 as against Rs. 12,33,787 in 1957-58. The closing balance at the end of the year 1964-65 remained at Rs. 1,82,810. The following table indicates the demand, collection and balance of revenue under several heads for the years 1964-65 :—

Particulars	Arrears	Demand	Total	Collection	Balance
	Rs.	Rs.	Rs.	Rs.	Rs.
Mohatarfa ..	4,31,289	4,84,498	9,15,787	3,74,129	5,41,664
Professional tax.	33,456	35,158	68,614	33,879	34,741
Water tax ..	1,10,468	75,729	1,86,195	66,713	1,19,482
Miscellaneous	59,505	1,25,590	1,85,095	1,26,297	58,798
Tolls ..	8,265	21,910	30,175	21,910	8,265
Octroi ..	..	9,09,995	9,09,995	9,09,995	..
Vehicle tax	..	12,975	12,975	12,975	..

It is seen from the above table that there was a considerable amount of balance. However, vigorous attempts were being made to collect the outstanding dues.

A total sum of Rs. 4,79,475 was spent by the Municipality on public works in 1964-65. For public safety measures like street lighting and rewards for destruction of wild animals and snakes, a sum of Rs. 52,946 was earmarked. Public health measures formed an important part of the day-to-day administration of the Municipality for which Rs. 76,746 were spent during 1964-65. Education of children was the accepted policy of the Municipality and a sum of Rs. 35,630 were spent for the purpose. The public debt portion claimed Rs. 7,46,935 during 1964-65. The total amount of expenditure on all these civic activities came to Rs. 24,89,194 during the year.

Water Supply

The supply of pure drinking water to the inhabitants of the city has been a major achievement of the civic body. Formerly, water from the Tungabhadra river flowing at Harihar, which is at a distance of nine miles, was being pumped through nine-inch pipes. This main was converted into 16 inches so as to provide more water to the growing population of the city. The daily supply which was between five and six lakhs of gallons was felt to be very inadequate and recently the provision was increased to 9 lakhs of gallons. During 1964-65, a sum of Rs. 2,70,996 was spent for the maintenance of water supply as against Rs. 2,79,705 in the previous year.

Drainage

In the absence of a comprehensive underground drainage system, the night soil collected from several parts of the city was being conveyed to three compost yards located in different areas on the outskirts of the city. Compost manure was prepared out of this night soil and was sold in public auction. A comprehensive scheme of underground drainage costing Rs. 10.23 lakhs was sanctioned by the Government in November 1954. The entire execution of the work was entrusted to the Executive Engineer,

No. 3 Sanitary Division, Davangere. This scheme is being carried out in a phased manner. A part of the old city and the Jayachamaraja Extension have already been provided with underground drainage. The rest of the city has conservable latrines provided with roofs and trap doors. The personnel of the conservancy and sanitation wing consist of one Health Officer, eight Inspectors, 777 sweepers and 84 scavengers, lorry drivers and loaders. Street rubbish is removed by means of carts and 22 carts are engaged daily for this purpose. The removal of night soil from the trap door latrines is done through night soil carts which are eight in number.

The health authorities have recently started an intensive cleaning campaign, in order to remove accumulation of old heaps of rubbish and silt and to keep the city clean and tidy. The campaign is conducted every week in different wards according to a planned programme in which all the sweeping staff is engaged. Special attention is being given to slum areas.

Sewage disposal is done through a septic tank located near Belthur road and the sewer water is used for growing vegetables and grass by the gardeners under lease basis. A Municipal Ayurvedic Vaidyashala is run at a cost of Rs. 6,745 a year. On an average 49,481 people came to this Vaidyashala for treatment annually.

The collection of vital statistics is done by a Sub-Registrar of Births and Deaths. The Medical Officers in charge of the several hospitals in the city report all cases of births and deaths relating to their institutions. During 1964-65, 2,760 births and 856 deaths were registered. The birth and death rates worked out to 31.4 per cent and 9.7 per cent respectively for 1,000 population.

Davangere city was first electrified on 2nd April 1939. The Municipality was maintaining, in 1965, 1,293 street lights at a cost of Rs. 52,948 per annum. The main thoroughfares and squares of the city are well lit. Ornamental and mercury vapour lights are provided in important streets.

The Municipality is maintaining a full-fledged high school and is spending about Rs. 13,000 a year on it. There were 525 pupils on the rolls during 1964-65 as against 482 in the previous year. A sum of Rs. 11,590 was being realised as fees.

There are eight parks maintained out of municipal funds. Another park is maintained at the Davangere water works at Harihar. These parks serve as favourite evening resorts for the inhabitants. A total sum of Rs. 21,401 was incurred during 1964-65 for the maintenance of these parks.

The Municipality has been striving to provide increased amenities to the ratepayers of the city. New sources of revenue are being explored to improve and expand the civic services. Demands for new amenities are increasing and the old traditional sources of revenue, *viz.*, assessed taxes and octroi are not of a very elastic nature. However, the City Municipal Council is trying its best to increase its revenue by levying other taxes.

TOWN MUNICIPALITIES

The eleven Town Municipal Councils in the district were constituted under the Mysore Town Municipalities Act, 1951. This Act was amended from time to time giving more powers to the Councils to provide increasing amenities to the ratepayers. The right of electing a non-official president was conceded to all the Town Municipalities. The following is a brief account of these Municipalities.

Chitradurga Town Municipality

The Chitradurga Town Municipal Council consisted of 20 members, all elected on the basis of adult franchise and the town was divided into 20 single-member constituencies for purposes of elections which were held once in four years as per the Town Municipalities Act, 1951. According to the 1961 census, the population was 33,336 and the municipal area was 2.50 square miles or 6.47 sq. kilometres. There were 5,328 dwelling houses in the municipal area.

The town has developed on the slopes at the foot of a hill and spread all over the area enclosed by the fort wall and the trench bordering it. The Chickpet Road running from south to north is on the foot of the hill. This road passes through the *Santhe Bagilu* (a fort gate) to join the main road at the junction of Holalkere Road and the Railway Station Road. Intersecting the Chickpet Road, another road called Dodpet Road runs from west to east and passes through *Rangaiyana Bagilu* (east fort gate). These two roads are lined with shops and form the centre of activity for traders. Inside the fort and forming a portion of the old town, is *Burujan hatti*, which is very crowded. Beyond the old town as described above, the town has expanded from the Santhe Bagilu Road, Holalkere Road and the Railway Station Road towards the east. Ever since the railway line was laid, the importance of Santhepet has grown. A new extension has sprung up beyond the Deputy Commissioner's quarters on the north side where a number of new residential houses have been built. The road junction at Santhepet where the Railway Station Road, Holalkere Road and the Santhe Bagilu Road meet, is an attractive square, adding grace to the town.

Receipts and Expenditure.—The total receipts under all heads for 1965-66 were Rs. 6,63,138.07 and the expenditure came to Rs. 6,65,059.10.

The incidence of taxation was Rs. 9.2 in 1964-65 as against Rs. 7.12 in 1957-58.

The Town Municipal Council is spending a considerable portion of its revenues on public safety measures like street lighting, and water supply and other items of special importance. A sum of Rs. 72,000 was spent in 1965-66 on these items. Public works carried out by the Municipality constituted yet another item of expenditure. A sum of Rs. 81,000 was spent on repairs of culverts, roads, drains, municipal fruit and flower stalls and the like during the year.

The Municipality is giving special attention to public conveniences, so as to keep the town as clean as possible. A sum of Rs. 1,05,116 was spent in 1965-66 in respect of sanitation, upkeep of burial grounds, disposal of night soil and general health of the population.

Water Supply.—The water supply problem in the town is very acute. The Municipality is making strenuous efforts to relieve this distressing situation by installing pumps in the wells and bore-holes in Timmanayakanakere tank bed. Pending execution of the Vanivilas Sagar Water Works, there is a supply of only 6 to 7 lakh gallons per day and this is found to be insufficient. Suggestions were made from time to time to tap all bore-well resources in the fort area. At present, bore-holes in the Timmanayakanakere tank bed are the primary source of water supply to the town. A pumphouse has been built on the Chitradurga-Davangere road where the water is filtered through the jewel-filter method and stored in R.C.C. tanks, three in number, at the foot-hills and water is distributed to all parts of the town. As the supply is meagre, the distribution is staggered and some portions of the town get a very low supply in the early hours of the morning. The Municipality has to pay a heavy sum towards maintenance of this water supply system to the State Public Works Department.

Electric Lights.—The streets of the town are well lit by electric lights and there were 604 street lights in the town in 1966. The top of the Chitradurga hill has a beacon mercury vapour light adding beauty to the historic fort.

Conservancy.—The sanitary condition of the town has been improved by providing six night soil carts, one tractor and eight hand carts.

Drainage.—The town is partially under the modern underground drainage system. The Government have since sanctioned a sum of Rs. 5 lakhs to complete the second stage of the drainage

scheme and the work was in progress. All the congested areas and lanes have been provided with surface drains.

Parks.—Four recreational parks are being maintained by the Municipality.

Hosadurga Town Municipality

The Hosadurga Town Municipality was established in 1917 introducing, for the first time, the election principle by which all the councillors were elected by popular vote. Up to 1951, the Municipality served the interests of the inhabitants as a Minor Municipality. Subsequently, the council was reconstituted as a Town Municipality under the Mysore Town Municipalities Act of 1951. The town was divided into three divisions, returning in all 15 members on the basis of adult franchise. One seat was reserved for the Scheduled Castes. The area of the municipality in 1961, was 1.9 square miles or 4.92 square kilometres and its population, 6,712.

Regarding amenities, the Council has implemented several schemes like those of protected water supply, street lighting and drainage facilities. The town is provided with Sylk pattern drains up to a length of 1,000 feet including the main drain called the "Ranoji Halla" leading to Ningappa tank.

Water Supply.—In the old days, the town depended for its water supply mainly on the drinking water wells which were 60 in number. These wells were fairly deep and went dry in summer, necessitating other sources of supply. In 1949, a new water supply scheme, involving a cost of four lakhs of rupees, was sanctioned and the execution of the works was completed in 1953 and it was named Sri Meenakshideviavara Water Works. The water is pumped from the Vedavathi river near Kellodu which is four miles away from the town and a daily supply of 60,000 gallons is assured through 200 private connections and public taps.

The town is rapidly expanding and to meet the demands of the ratepayers, new layouts have been proposed to be formed in the adjacent survey numbers of Goravinakal village. House sites are proposed to be formed in the locality to provide dwelling houses for the poor.

The municipal area is served by a Government of India-type health unit, including a maternity section maintained by the Health Services Department since 1965-66.

The Municipality has plans to form a public park behind the Municipal High School at a cost of Rs. 1,500.

The Municipality is running a high school, a nursery school and a Sanskrit Pathashala.

The receipts and expenditure of the Hosadurga Municipality for 1964-65 were Rs. 1,32,709 and Rs. 1,36,213 respectively.

Holalkere Town Municipality

The Holalkere Town Municipality was constituted as per the Mysore Town Municipalities Act of 1951, with 15 members elected from 15 single-member constituencies. The term of the Council under the Act was of four years after which new elections were to be held. According to the 1961 census, the town had a population of 5,976 and an area of 0.20 square mile or 0.52 square kilometre.

Water supply to the town is provided by two bore-wells at the rate of 20,000 gallons per day. A new water supply scheme at an estimated cost of Rs. one lakh and odd was approved by the State Government and the work was nearing completion. With this, the water supply to the town was expected to increase from 20,000 gallons to 40,000 gallons per day. In 1965, the town had 80 private connections and 40 public taps.

There is no underground drainage system and refuse water is drained through cut drains.

As regards education, the Municipality is running a high school in the town. Medical facilities are provided through the Local Fund dispensary now converted into a primary health centre of the Government of India-type.

The Municipality is maintaining a recreation park with a radio, in front of the municipal office.

The revenues of the Municipality for 1964-65 amounted to Rs. 41,020 as against Rs. 24,000 in 1957-58. The expenditure was Rs. 44,806 during 1964-65.

Challakere Town Municipality

Challakere town was divided into three divisions, each division returning five members. One seat was reserved in Division No. 1 for women and one seat in Division No. 3 for the Scheduled Castes. Elections were held once in four years under the Mysore Town Municipalities Act of 1951. As per the 1961 census, the population of the town was 10,408 and the municipal area measured 0.40 square mile or 1.04 square kilometres.

The old town with its narrow streets and congested areas has expanded with the march of time. Extensions have been laid out on the Chitradurga Road and Bangalore Road. To meet the increasing needs of the growing population of this important commercial town, the Municipal Council decided to form new layouts on the Bangalore Road and nearly 300 sites had been disposed of. A decent colony was being built on the Chitradurga Road, the model houses constructed being given to the low-paid Government servants under the low income group housing scheme.

Water Supply.—Till recently, drinking water was being obtained from wells; though the number of wells, both public and private, was quite considerable, the source was not dependable in all seasons. Consequent on the efforts of the Municipal Council, the Government sanctioned a loan of Rs. 4 lakhs for a new water supply scheme in 1959. The scheme was completed and protected water was being distributed through mains at the rate of 15 gallons per head per day.

Drainage.—Drainage is another problem which is engaging the attention of the Municipal Council. New drains are being constructed as and when necessary and repairs are being carried out to old drains. A comprehensive drainage scheme has been drawn up.

Education.—Challakere Municipal Council was one of the pioneer councils which volunteered to establish Municipal High Schools in 1949. The high school at Challakere maintained by the Municipality is attracting students not only from the town but also from the interior of the taluk. The Council was spending about Rs. 10,000 a year for the maintenance of this high school. From the year 1965-66, XI Standard also has been opened. A nursery school for children is also being run since 1954.

Medical facilities.—The Council has contributed funds for opening a maternity section in the Local Fund Dispensary. In addition to this, the Council has been paying a contribution towards the maintenance of the maternity section. Apart from this, the municipality has donated a new building costing Rs. 50,000 for a new X-ray block. A new Ayurvedic dispensary has also been opened.

The Council has provided a children's corner in the well-laid-out municipal park. A community hall has been built and a tennis court, reading room and a library are attached to it.

The financial resources of the Municipality are very limited, octroi, toll and miscellaneous taxes being the major sources of income. The receipts and expenditure for 1964-65 were Rs. 2,01,510 and Rs. 1,96,512 respectively.

Jagalur Town Municipality

Formerly, Jagalur had a Minor Municipality which was converted into a Town Municipality in April 1952 under the Mysore Town Municipalities Act of 1951. It had 15 councillors elected on the basis of adult franchise. One seat was reserved for the Scheduled Castes. The election was held once in four years. The town had a population of 5,772 and its area was 1.80 square miles or 4.66 square kilometres.

The source of water supply to the town is from two bore wells, with a daily average of about 50,000 gallons.

The municipal area has box drains and V-shaped drains in all parts of the town.

The town was lit by electric lights which were 150 in number and the expenditure on these was Rs. 6,150 per annum.

A new extension called Sri Jayachamarajendra Extension has been laid out recently.

The Town Municipal Council is running a high school.

The revenue and expenditure figures of the Municipality for the year 1964-65 were Rs. 84,869 and Rs. 94,417, respectively.

Hiriyur Town Municipality

The Hiriyur Municipal Council was constituted in accordance with the Mysore Town Municipalities Act of 1951 and it consisted of 15 elected members. One seat was reserved for the Scheduled Castes. The elections to the Council were held once in four years. The population of the town, as per the 1961 census, was 11,455 and its area was 2.02 square miles or 5.23 square kilometres.

Since September 1953, the town has a protected water supply system with a daily consumption of 1,00,000 gallons. The population of the town is on the increase and the supply of water is becoming insufficient. In order to meet the increased demand, a new water supply scheme costing Rs. 3 lakhs was under execution.

The Municipality is maintaining a high school, a nursery school, a public library and a reading room.

A new vegetable market has been opened recently.

There are two municipal parks in the town, with community radio sets.

The revenue and expenditure figures of the Municipality for 1964-65 were Rs. 1,98,970 and Rs. 2,92,993, respectively.

Harihar Town Municipality

The Town Municipal Council at Harihar had 20 elected members including two Scheduled Caste members. Elections were held once in four years on the adult franchise system under the Town Municipalities Act, 1951. The population of the town, as per the 1961 census, was 22,829 and the area was 2.70 square miles or 6.99 square kilometres.

To the south of the old town, a new lay-out has been formed for providing sites at cheap rates. Water supply, at the rate of 15 to 20 gallons per head per day. is provided from the Tungabhadra river. There are two high schools and one nursery school run by the Municipality. Regarding medical facilities, the town has one combined dispensary and its maintenance charges are met out of the municipal funds. Two recreation parks are also maintained by the Municipality. The income of the Municipality was Rs. 6,38,073 and the expenditure was 6,41,214 in 1964-65.

Mayakonda Town Municipality

Originally, Mayakonda had a Minor Municipality and this was converted into a Town Municipality in accordance with the provisions of the Mysore Town Municipalities Act, 1951. The Council consists of 15 elected members. One seat was reserved for Scheduled Castes. Elections were held once in four years. The town had a population of 3,211 and an area of 0.08 square mile or 0.21 square kilometre, according to the 1961 census.

A new lay-out called *Jayadeva Badavane* has been recently formed by the Municipality. The town has no protected water supply and drinking water is drawn from wells.

The revenue and expenditure of the Municipality for 1964-65 were Rs. 0,116.34 and Rs. 8,978.37, respectively.

Nayakanahatti Town Municipality

The Nayakanahatti Town Municipal Council was constituted under the Mysore Town Municipalities Act of 1951 with 15 elected members drawn from three divisions. Elections were held once in four years. The population of the town, as per the 1961 census, was 2,777 and the area was 0.01 square mile or 0.03 square kilometre. A new water supply scheme involving an expenditure of Rs. 1,05,260 has been sanctioned. Two bore-wells also have been sunk. A drainage scheme is under way under the local development scheme executed by the Public Works Department. For recreational purposes, the Council has provided a radio and a loud speaker in the Town Hall. The receipts and expenditure of the Municipality for 1964-65 were Rs. 28,865 and Rs. 24,255, respectively.

Molakalmuru Town Municipality

The Molakalmuru Town Municipal Council had 15 members elected from 15 wards on the basis of adult franchise under the Town Municipalities Act, 1951. The town has sprung up in a tract surrounded by hills and is bounded on the north, east and west by hillocks, of which the northern portion is a range. The town has grown from the foot of the hill and has spread on the rugged area for some distance, being limited on the southern side by the Rayadurga-Bellary Road. As per the 1961 census the town had a population of 4,853 and its area was 0.20 square mile or 0.52 square kilometre.

Water supply to the town is drawn from a tank on the top of the hill. This is supplemented by a number of wells inside the town, having copious supply of water.

The receipts and expenditure figures of the Municipality for 1964-65 were Rs. 39,532 and Rs. 38,334, respectively.

Turuvanur Town Municipality

The Turuvanur Town Municipality had an area of one square mile in extent and served a population of 4,706, according to the 1961 Census. The Municipal Council had 15 members elected on the basis of adult franchise under the Town Municipalities Act, 1951. The total mileage of roads vested in the Municipality was three and it was of the unmetalled variety. There were 110 electric street lights within the confines of the town. Drinking water was being supplied to the ratepayers through two bore-wells. The receipts and expenditure of the Municipality for 1964-65 were Rs. 19,914-75 and Rs. 18,011-92, respectively.

In order to bring about uniformity throughout the new Mysore State in respect of municipal administration, a new Act called the Mysore Municipalities Act, 1964 (Mysore Act XXII of 1964), was adopted by the State Legislature and it came into force with effect from 1st April 1965. Elections, however, have not yet been held and the Municipal Councils reconstituted under the provisions of the new Act. The following statement shows the number of members the Municipal Councils will be having when reconstituted under the new Act :—

Population Range		*No. of members*
Municipality with a population not exceeding 20,000.	..	15
Municipality with a population exceeding 20,000 but not exceeding 30,000.	..	19
Municipality with a population exceeding 30,000 but not exceeding 40,000.	..	23
Municipality with a population exceeding 40,000 but not exceeding 50,000.	..	27
Municipality with a population exceeding 50,000 but not exceeding 1,00,000.	..	31
Municipality with a population exceeding 1,00,000.	..	35

Democratic Decentralisation

The State launched a new scheme of democratic decentralisation on 1st November 1959. The basis for this new system is the Mysore Village Panchayats and Local Boards Act of 1959, which received the assent of the President of India on the 16th July 1959. This new legislation aims at organising a democratic structure of administration within the district, in which village panchayats are organically linked with popular organisations at

a higher level, namely the Taluk Board and the District Development Council. The re-organised panchayats represent the social and political wing of village democracy while the service co-operatives form the economic wing. The objective of the new measure is to usher in a Panchayat Raj as visualised by the Father of the Nation. The three tiers of the decentralised district administration are the Village Panchayats, the Taluk Development Boards and the District Development Council. Several provisions of the new measure are in consonance with the recommendations of the Balwantrai Mehta Committee and also of the report of the Working Group on Panchayats.

Village Panchayats

As regards the constitution of the panchayats, the new Mysore Village Panchayats and Local Boards Act of 1959 provides for the establishment of a panchayat in every revenue village or a group of revenue villages having a population of not less than 1,500 but not more than 10,000. The membership of the panchayats is not less than 11 and not more than 19 with reservation of seats for Scheduled Castes and Tribes in proportion to their population. In every panchayat, an obligation is cast on the voters to elect not less than two women members. The revenue village or group of villages is divided into constituencies and members are chosen for each constituency on the basis of adult franchise.

Under the new Act, panchayats have a significant role to play in the development of villages. All the plan schemes of the village are to be implemented by the panchayat administration. Construction, repair and maintenance of village roads, drains, bunds and bridges, public wells, ponds and tanks, lighting and sanitation are some of the responsibilities entrusted to the panchayats. They are also expected to carry out various other duties in the sphere of co-operation, improvement of economic conditions of the people with special reference to agriculture and cottage industries, establishment and maintenance of dispensaries, maternity and child welfare centres. The day-to-day administration of these panchayats is conducted by trained secretaries who are appointed by Government. A generous portion of the land revenue, *viz.*, 30 per cent of the collections in the jurisdiction of the panchayats in addition to five per cent of the State's total land revenue collections, is assigned to the panchayats.

During 1964-65, there were, in all, 392 village panchayats in the district established as per the Mysore Village Panchayats and Local Boards Act of 1959. The financial resources were tapped, as far as possible, and budgets were prepared. These were approved by the Deputy Commissioner. The opening balance of the panchayats in the district as on 1st April 1964 was Rs. 7,54,345-08. The receipts during 1964-65 were Rs. 10,40,315-87, while the expenditure for the same year came to Rs. 11,09,935-56.

During 1964-65, a sum of Rs. 4,38,795 was received by the panchayats in the district by way of Government grants under land revenue assignments. Under the demand, collection and balance of revenue of village panchayats, a sum of Rs. 4,86,986 was realised against a total demand of Rs. 13,50,290. Formation of new roads was a prominent activity of the panchayats and a sum of Rs. 36,961-51 was spent for the purpose in 1964-65. As regards other activities, mention may be made of the social education programme, which included organisation of village volunteer force and the setting up of defence labour banks. During 1964-65, Dalapathi training camps were conducted in all the panchayats. This training programme was a first step undertaken in organising the village volunteer force. Under the mass education programme, radio rural forums were organised in 53 panchayats and the rural population evinced keen interest in listening to forum programmes through the community receiving sets. Organisation of *Balawadis* was a particular feature of the activities of the panchayats. There were, during 1964-65, 30 *Balawadis* working in various villages under the direct control of the village panchayats.

Under the Panchayat Production Programme, almost all the village panchayats of the district, have formulated their own plans. Nine taluk-level seminars and one district level seminar were conducted to assess the progress of the various plan schemes. Necessary help was given by the panchayats for organising youth welfare activities, rural libraries and adult education classes. The panchayats received the help of Government technical personnel in dealing with subjects such as improved agricultural practices, animal husbandry, education and village defence.

Taluk Development Boards

Nine Taluk Development Boards, having jurisdiction over the nine revenue taluks, constituted as per section 96 of the Mysore Village Panchayats and Local Boards Act of 1959 have been functioning in the district since 1st November 1959. The taluk boards covered a rural population of 9,04,125.

The main functions of the Taluk Development Boards comprise construction, repair and maintenance of public roads and primary school buildings, management of minor irrigation works, which irrigate an area not exceeding 10 acres, establishment, maintenance and inspection of hospitals, dispensaries, veterinary institutions, markets, travellers' bungalows and such other public institutions. They have also to guide and generally supervise the activities of the village panchayats in their respective jurisdictions. For these and other various activities, the Taluk Boards get 20 per cent of the land revenue collected within the taluk and five per cent of the entire land revenue of the State. In addition the entire local cess on land revenue and the water rate, levied and

collected in the area, are given to these Boards and they may al levy other duties, taxes and fees as per the provisions of the Act

The nine Taluk Boards had formed 55 committees to attend various aspects of their work ; 125 people were employed in tl several Boards and an expenditure of Rs. 1,08,729-70 was incurr towards their pay and allowances during 1964-65.

There were in all 197-5 miles of roads, 14 causeways, culver and small bridges maintained by the Boards. A sum Rs. 54,725-58 was spent on the maintenance of the roads duri 1964-65. In addition, the Boards took up construction of ne roads of a length of 50 miles and incurred an expenditure Rs. 47,183-86.

Excepting in Harihar taluk, there are no ferries in the distri The Harihar Taluk Board was managing eight ferries, both sm and big, which served as a means of communication across tl Tungabhadra river. A sum of Rs. 5,801 was realised duri 1964-65 by the auctioning of ferry rights.

Except Harihar and Davangere, the other Taluk Boar maintained in all 18 Travellers' Bungalows, Musafirkhanas a Rest Houses. A sum of Rs. 6,399 was realised from them duri 1964-65 by way of rent.

There were two vaccinators and nine health inspecto working under the control of the Taluk Boards. The staff condu ted 10,086 vaccinations against small-pox during 1964-65. All tl Taluk Boards in the district took preventive measures in villages check the spread of cholera and other epidemic diseases.

The Taluk Boards of Challakere, Hiriyur, Jagalur ar Hosadurga also conducted *Jatras* and cattle fairs at several plac There was a receipt of Rs. 787 against an expenditure of Rs. 3,1 during 1964-65 on the organisation and sanitation of these *Jatr* and fairs. There were in all 32 shandies managed by Tal Boards and a sum of Rs. 23,482 was realised from them in 1964-6

During 1964-65, the Taluk Boards took up the construction five primary school buildings at a cost of about Rs. 5,000.

Fifty-four allopathic dispensaries functioning in the distri received maintenance contributions from the Taluk Board Twenty-four Ayurvedic dispensaries were also managed by tl nine Taluk Boards and an expenditure of Rs. 52,930 was incurr on these institutions during 1964-65.

Five district board high schools were transferred to the contr of the taluk boards. Including these, there were six high schoo

under the management of the Taluk Boards. The expenditure incurred on these high schools during 1964-65 was Rs. 1,25,513.

Under section 127 of the Mysore Village Panchayats and Local Boards Act, 1959, all the taluk boards in the district have constituted committees to deal with matters relating to the amelioration of the Scheduled Castes and Tribes and the work done under this head greatly helped the under-privileged population.

A sum of Rs. 58,748 was earmarked under Plan and non-Plan schemes for the maintenance of women's welfare centres. Mid-day meal facilities were provided to the children of the schools attached to these centres. Training in tailoring, knitting and embroidery was also provided to women in these centres.

To improve the economic conditions of women belonging to the depressed classes, particularly destitute and deserted women, tailoring classes were conducted at Chitradurga and Challakere at a cost of Rs. 11,000. A sum of Rs. 17,672 was spent during 1964-65, for giving subsidies to the families of nomadic tribes.

The following statement shows the income and expenditure and closing balance of the nine Taluk Boards for the year 1964-65.

Sl. No.	*Name of Taluk Board.*		*Income*	*Expenditure*	*Closing Balance*
			Rs. P.	Rs. P.	Rs. P.
1.	Chitradurga	..	96,754–75	1,33,559–33	80,191–15
2.	Challakere	..	1,24,395–39	92,757–70	11,792–56
3.	Molakalmuru	..	30,966–18	36,152–23	28,216–61
4.	Hiriyur	..	1,20,797–98	1,03,556–38	64,522–35
5.	Davangere	..	1,30,425–00	1,09,590–00	31,605–00
6.	Harihar	..	1,12,481–35	77,150–36	43,747–43
7.	Holalkere	..	1,10,787–74	75,497–90	80,846–61
8.	Hosadurga	..	91,583–31	1,16,038–88	35,151–58
9.	Jagalur	..	56,221–42	62,954–73	2,711–69
	Total	..	8,74,413–12	8,07,257–51	3,78,784–98

District Development Council

In accordance with section 187 of the Mysore Village Panchayats and Local Boards Act of 1959, the Government constituted a District Development Council for the revenue district of Chitradurga from 1st April 1960. There were 39 members on the Council. Of these, 15 were the members of Lok Sabha, Rajya Sabha, the State Legislative Assembly and Legislative Council. One member represented the Scheduled Castes and Tribes; there was a women's representative; Presidents of the nine Taluk Boards and 13 district officers, including the Deputy Commissioner, were the other members of the Council.

While the panchayats and taluk boards are local authorities, which actively administer rural development work in their respective areas, the District Development Council reviews and co-ordinates the work done by these bodies, especially that of the taluk boards. It is also in charge of planning developmental activities for the entire district as a unit. This body meets generally once in three months, passes the budgets of the taluk boards and gives them guidance. While the Deputy Commissioner of the district is the *ex-officio* Chairman of the Council, the District Development Assistant functions as its Secretary.

The Council met four times during 1964-65 to transact business such as review of the working of N.E.S. and C.D. Blocks, allotment of funds under Plan and non-Plan schemes to the several Taluk Boards, approving of the budgets of Taluk Boards and review of the progress of Rural Man Power Project.

CHAPTER XV

EDUCATION AND CULTURE

Early History

IN ancient days, the Vedic system of education prevalent in other parts of India was in vogue in this region also. During this period, the teaching appears to have been entirely oral, the student committing to memory long passages from various works. Education was more or less vocational, the Brahmins, the Kshatriyas and the Vaishyas learning their respective duties. The education of the Brahmins was naturally more academic than that of the other classes. The curriculum was comprehensive, including not only the Vedas, but also grammar, mathematics, logic, ethics, etymology, astronomy, besides the practical arts like dancing and singing. As a rule, the student remained in the house of the teacher till he finished his course, the duration of which was twelve years. Discipline during this period was exacting and the pupils had to work hard not only for themselves but also for their teacher, collecting fuel and alms for him and also tending his cattle. It was also the custom in those days for the students to travel far and wide in order to attach themselves to celebrated teachers.

As time passed, there arose large-scale educational institutions in the country, some of them specialising in certain branches of learning. Kanchi in the south was one such famous centre of learning to which Mayurasharma, the founder of the Kadamba family, is said to have gone for receiving higher education. In Chitradurga district, there were several centres of learning as evidenced by the existence of several ancient *agrahara* towns. The education of the Kshatriya or warrior class appears to have been somewhat different from that of the priestly class. Being more vocational than academic, it included less of Vedic studies and more of the use of arms and military training. The science of politics was a compulsory subject for the princes. As is clear from the *Arthashastra*, there was considerable development in the Kshatriya education during the Maurya period. According to Kautilya, the curriculum of the royal study included *Anvikshaki* (Sankhya, Yoga and Lokayata schools of philosophy), the *Trayi* or the three Vedas, Varta *i.e.*, agriculture, animal husbandry and

trade) and *Dandaniti* or the science of Government including criminal law. At the same time, the would-be kings were given sufficient training in the humanities like the languages and literature and the fine arts. It is mainly because of such a rigorous and comprehensive system of education that India could produce eminent and enlightened kings. Instances of such author-philosopher-kings are not wanting in the history of Karnataka. The education of the Vaishya or the trading and agricultural class was also not neglected in the Brahminic system. According to Manu, the Vaishya should know the respective values of gems, of pearls, of corals, of metals, of cloths, of perfumes and of condiments; he must be acquainted with the manner of sowing seeds, the qualities of soils and all the weights and measures; he should know the merits and defects of commodities, the advantages and disadvantages of different countries, the probable profit and loss on merchandise and so on; he must be acquainted with the proper wages of servants, with the various languages of men, with the manner of keeping goods and the rules of sale and purchase. All this presupposes sufficient training of the young Vaishya in subjects like agriculture, trade and commerce, and some practical knowledge of arithmetic, geography and languages. Of course, much of this, the Vaishya boy learned from his father and his business circle. Thus, Vaishya education was domestic rather than institutional. The same was the case with the education in other crafts. The crafts, in ancient days, being hereditary, the children of the craftsmen had but little choice of occupation and were brought up in the same trade as their fathers. The teacher and the taught in this case being the father and the son, the relation between the two were most affectionate and the training was free from the formalities of the classroom. In the majority of these occupations, no knowledge of reading and writing was required for the direct purpose of the craft, and therefore these were not learnt. But in some of these occupations, certain works containing the traditional rules relating to the particular crafts were learnt by rote.

Popular Education

In addition to these systems, there existed in India, a popular system of elementary education open generally to all who desired to take advantage of it. It consisted of elementary reading, writing and arithmetic and generally resulted in a marvellous cultivation of memory. It perhaps had its origin in the needs of the agricultural and trading classes, who largely made use of it. This education was imparted in almost every large village and town in India. The school had usually two sessions daily—from about 7 to 10 in the morning and 2 to 5 in the evening. In these schools, reading was done from manuscripts of palm leaf. Writing, in the beginning, was on sand and later on blackened boards with sticks of potstone. Arithmetic consisted principally of memorising, by oral repetition in chorus, of long tables of fractional and

integral numbers, useful for mental calculation or ordinary business transactions. Strict discipline was maintained in the class room and punishments were often harsh. The teachers were generally supported by small payments in kind or by a contract for a fixed period with some influential resident.

Muhammadan education in the former Mysore State received considerable attention during the days of Haidar Ali and Tipu Sultan, particularly the latter. Haidar Ali was himself illiterate, but a shrewd and capable man with excellent memory. His ideas about education of princes can be made out from his reaction to the education which Tipu had received at the hands of the Mullahs. Tipu had been put under Mullahs of reputation for his training. At the end of the training, Haidar is said to have tested Tipu and found that the boy had not obtained the training required for a soldier's son but had everything that would be necessary to make him a good Moulvi. Haidar is further stated to have exclaimed that his boy had not been taught the things that would make him a great and good ruler and that everything had been done to ruin his family and his kingdom. Haidar's prophecy came true; Tipu, we are told by Kirmani, built a Masjid in every town and appointed a Muazzin, a Moula and a Kazi to each and promoted the education and learning of the Musalmans to the utmost of his power, he himself, too, spending much of his time in prayer, reading the Koran and counting the beads of his rosary. Muhammadan educational institutions are called Maktabs and Madrasas. The Maktab is a primary school attached to a mosque, where portions of the Koran form the main item of education. The Madrasa is a school or college of higher learning.

Modern Education

In the princely State of Mysore, until as late as 1833, education was entirely a private activity, government having nothing to do with it. Teaching was done mostly by religious leaders and priests. It was in the year 1833 that Krishnaraja Wodeyar III established at his own cost a free English school at Mysore. But systematic State activity in the field of education began, not only in Mysore but in the whole of India, with the famous Despatch of 1854. It is on the plan sketched in that Despatch by the Directors of the East India Company that the structure of modern Indian education was mainly based. At that time, Mysore was under the direct rule of the British Government. When the provisions of the Despatch of 1854 had to be applied to Mysore, Mr. Devereux, Judicial Commissioner, drew up a scheme of education for Mysore and Coorg jointly, which was sanctioned by the Government with slight modifications. The next important year in the history of education in Mysore was 1868, when the Government sanctioned what was known as the Hobli School System proposed by Mr. Rice. Under this scheme, a school was to be sanctioned for every hobli where the people desired to have a school and agreed to provide a school building. As a result of

this, the situation considerably improved by about 1871-72. The majority of the hoblies had schools and each taluk had a superior vernacular school. There were 11 district schools in the State teaching up to the Matriculation standard. After the restoration of the State to the ruling family, the policy of the British Commission in the matter of education was continued and since then there has been a steady progress in all directions. The main features of the progress of education in the district upto 1900 were the establishment of a students' home at Chitradurga, starting of a library in the high school as part of a State-wide policy, and the encouragement given to the education of the sons of Paleyagars. The period, 1911-1916, was another landmark in the history of education in the State. This period was marked by the adoption of new ideals in all directions of educational work. The most important step taken was the introduction of compulsion in a modified form into the system of primary education. Almost of equal importance was the introduction of the secondary school leaving certificate scheme, a reform which was long considered necessary and had already been adopted in other parts of India. This was also the period which saw the establishment of the University of Mysore. The educational service was also completely reorganised; the scales of pay were revised, thus brightening the prospects of the members belonging to the teaching profession.

Growth of Literacy

Literacy had been defined variously in the previous censuses for purposes of enumeration. The main purpose of primary education as adumbrated by well-known educationists was not to secure permanent literacy but to equip the individual with the means to improve himself. In the census handbook of the Chitradurga district for the year 1951 a more precise definition of literacy was given. The report while describing what literacy was said: "the test for literacy is the ability to read and write a simple message in some language or other". In the preparation of tables they defined the word 'literates' as persons who could read and write but who had not passed any examination and illiterates included partly literates who could read but not write. In the later part of the last century, the census compilers divided the population in respect of literacy into three distinct categories—learned, literate and illiterate. In the mode of enumeration some difficulty was experienced in classifying the learned and the illiterate. In 1901, the census confined its entries to the two categories of literates and illiterates. Only in 1911 did a clear definition of literacy crystallise. It was defined that literates were those who could write a letter to a friend and read the answer to it. It is on the basis of this definition that the census enumeration is being conducted even now. It would be difficult to say if in each case shown as 'literate', literacy has reached the level of reading and writing. The largest number of literates are, however, returned in the vernaculars and the Kannada phrase "ಓದು ಬರಹ" (meaning

reading and writing) has been applied in classifying the entries. It may be said that in the method of classifying literates the definition as laid down in the census reports has been followed as far as possible. In most of the cases the definition laid down has been satisfactory, the only exception being a small number who claimed knowledge of several languages. In such cases, there is bound to be an inflation in the number of people knowing the other languages but not in the number of literate persons as a whole. People in rural areas who know some English are rather anxious to claim knowledge of English but their number is small and there cannot be many who know that language.

In the 1951 Census, all degrees and diplomas, technical as well as non-technical, were given under one heading, *viz.*, degree or diploma, while in the 1961 Census, non-technical diplomas and degrees were clearly distinguished from technical diplomas and degrees. In the present analysis, separate classification has been made regarding the number of persons with a technical degree or diploma equal to a degree or post-graduate degree in engineering, medicine, agriculture, veterinary or dairying, technology and teaching. The definition of the concept of "literacy', adopted for Census purposes in 1961, will be relevant in studying the tables given here. All persons who are able to read and understand any simple letter in any language, either in print or in manuscript, and to write a simple letter are considered literates. If in addition to being able to read and write, any person has passed an examination or examinations as proof of an educational level attained, the highest examination passed is also taken into account. The person who does not satisfy this test of literacy is an 'illiterate'. Thus literates consist of mere literates who just satisfy the definition of literacy without possessing any educational qualification, as well as those who have passed some examination.

The number of literates per 10,000 of the population as disclosed in the decennial census reports for the Chitradurga district is as follows :—

Census Year			*Literates per 10,000 of population*
1901	..	..	1,160
1911	..	..	1,350
1921	..	..	1,590
1931	..	..	2,030
1941	..	..	2,612

According to the 1951 Census, the total percentage of literacy in the district was 20.6 (males 31.9 and females 8.5). Ten years later, *i.e.*, during the 1961 Census, the figure was 25.1 (males 36.6 and females 12.6). The figures of literacy in 1951 and in 1961

for the State of Mysore were 18.8 and 25.4 respectively. These figures show a distinct improvement though not of a spectacular character. It may be safely surmised that literacy will make even greater strides in coming years, because the population has realised the manifold advantages of education on modern lines. The most potent of the forces making for spread of literacy is the transfer of political power to the people. As the importance of adult franchise is being realised, voter and candidate alike are feeling the handicap of illiteracy. The general illiteracy of the voter has given rise to a number of difficulties in the manner and method of voting. It is the policy of the State Government to make maximum possible efforts for educational advancement.

The comparative position with regard to the total number of literates in 1951 and in 1961 and the percentage of literacy in the district, both according to taluks as well as towns, are given in the Appendix.

The population of the district in the year 1951 was 868,370 and the number of literates was 178,508. According to the 1961 Census, the population of the district was 1,094,284 and the number of literates was 274,578 the percentage of literacy being 25.1 as against 20.0 in 1951. The percentage of literates in the urban areas of the district, which was 40.5 in 1951, rose to 44.98 in 1961. The decade 1951-61 has thus shown some progress in respect of primary education in the district.

Educational levels

The total number of literates in the district according to the census of 1961 was 274,578, of whom 207,791 were men and 66,787 women. The literates who had not passed any examination and those who had passed an examination below the primary or junior basic examination (including those who had failed in primary or junior basic examination) have been included in the category of "literates without educational level", while all the other literates who had passed primary or junior basic or any higher examination have been included in the respective categories. The following statement indicates the number of literates without educational level and persons who had passed any institutional examination, academic, vocational or technical in the *urban areas* of the district according to the Census of 1961.

	Persons	*Males*	*Females*
Literates without educational level ..	55,315	34,836	20,479
Primary or junior basic ..	17,635	11,349	6,286
Matriculation or Higher Secondary ..	11,010	9,463	1,547
Technical diploma not equal to degree ..	344	333	11

	Persons	*Males*	*Females*
Non-technical diploma not equal to degree ..	7	7	..
University degree or post-graduate degree other than technical degrees ..	909	857	52
Technical degree or diploma equal to degree or post-graduate degree ..	322	315	7
Engineering ..	140	140	..
Medicine ..	32	30	2
Agriculture ..	13	13	..
Veterinary and dairying ..	6	6	..
Technology ..	5	5	..
Teaching ..	124	119	5
Others ..	2	2	..

The following statement indicates the number of literates without educational level, and persons who had passed primary or junior basic, matriculation and other higher examinations in the *rural areas* of the district according to the Census of 1961.

	Persons	*Males*	*Females*
Literates without educational level ..	168,798	132,600	36,198
Primary or Junior basic ..	14,577	12,539	2,038
Matriculation and above ..	5,661	5,492	169

The 1961 Census revealed that there were 203,848 members of the Scheduled Castes and 152 members of the Scheduled Tribes in the district. Vigorous attempts have been made to encourage the spread of education amongst the Scheduled Castes who are exempted from all fees. In addition, various other concessions like special scholarships, stipends and other assistance are available to the Scheduled Castes and Tribes to further their prospects of education.

General Education

Pre-primary Education

In 1964-65 there were in all 50 nursery schools in the district with a total strength of about 2,000. Pre-primary or nursery education for the children between the ages of 3 and 5 is mostly the responsibility of the parents and private organisations in the district. The general policy of Government in this respect is one of encouragement and assistance rather than direct initiative. So, in order to give proper encouragement to the starting of kindergarten and nursery schools, many a private agency and local body is helped with grant-in-aid by the Government. These nursery schools are

ment primarily for the development of children during the most plastic period of their young life. The schools started as nursery schools in the district are cofined mainly to urban areas and cater mostly to the educationally advanced communities who have the wherewithal to meet the expenditure on that account. With a view to popularising these schools in the rural areas where they are mostly needed, the rules of grant-in-aid were largely liberalised, according to which the schools started in rural areas received grant-in-aid upto 70 per cent of the total expenditure, while the nursery schools in larger towns received only 50 per cent of the approved expenditure. Even in the case of the already established institutions, greater facilities were afforded to poor children to receive their pre-primary education. These facilities were in respect of reservation of seats for the poor children. It was made a condition of the grant-in-aid that at least one-third of the seats should be made available to poor children who could not afford to pay fully for the nursery type of education. In 1964-65, the average cost incurred per child in these nursery schools was Rs. 24.00 as against Rs. 24.5 spent on primary education. In 1936, a special committee was appointed to enquire into the problems relating to nursery schools. According to the Committee, the object and scope of these institutions were to promote the physical development of the child through play activities and to develop correct health habits and also to give training in personal hygiene. The importance of providing adequate opportunities to develop qualities of self-reliance, mutual helpfulness and willing co-operation with others was stressed. To a great extent, the recommendations of the Special Committee have been implemented from time to time in order to lay the foundations for a correct type of education.

Primary Education

In the history of primary education, the year 1868 is noteworthy because in that year the Government approved a scheme prepared by Mr. Rice and it saw the beginnings of Hobli Schools. According to this scheme, a school had to be set up in every hobli to bring the benefits of education to the rural masses. This policy of the Government was well-received by the people and by 1871 all the hoblis in the district had schools imparting elementary education. All taluk headquarters were provided with vernacular schools and the district headquarters with a district school teaching up to the matriculation standard. After the rendition in 1881, the Maharaja's Government continued the policy of the British Commission in regard to education. In the earlier years of the Maharaja's rule, the Government thought of handing over vernacular primary schools to local boards and village committees. Steps were initiated in 1884 to work out, as far as possible, the programme of education on the above lines. The progress thereafter was steady. An Inspector-General of Education was appointed to direct the administration of public instruction. In 1898-99 the percentage of boys and girls to the male and female population

of school-going age was respectively 24.52 and 3.78. The educational set-up in the district remained practically unchanged up to 1910-11. The period after that was noteworthy for the adoption of new ideas in the educational field. The introduction of compulsion in a modified form into the primary education system was much appreciated though there were a number of difficulties in the course of its implementation. The main reforms introduced then were the promulgation of the Elementary Education Regulation introducing compulsion, a new scheme to introduce practical education in elementary schools, a programme of expansion to double the number of schools, and opening of new vernacular schools. The period from 1917 to 1932 is very important in the history of education. As per a comprehensive policy resolution approved by the Government on 25th May 1921, various measures were introduced to place the educational progress of the State on a secure foundation. The already existing aided primary schools in rural areas were converted into Government institutions, with a more qualified and better staff. Middle schools of a uniform bilingual type were set up providing instruction both in Kannada and English.

The progress of primary education can be reviewed in two distinct periods—the first from 1932 to 1941 when the primary schools were under the control of the Local Education Authorities and the second period from 1941 to 1044 when the control was resumed by the Government from the local bodies. The first period was one of consolidation while the second was a period of expansion. At the beginning of 1932, primary schools were of two grades called the ordinary primary schools and the privileged primary schools. In both, instruction was entirely through the medium of the mother tongue. The ordinary primary school course was of four years' duration, on the completion of which a pupil was eligible for admission into a middle school. Privileged primary schools consisted of six classes which prepared candidates for the vernacular lower secondary examination. In 1934-35, the vernacular upper secondary course was abolished. Only the privileged primary schools presented candidates for the vernacular lower secondary examination. With this change, the nomenclature of privileged primary and ordinary primary schools was changed to upper primary and lower primary schools. Similarly, the vernacular lower secondary examination was called the upper primary examination.

Under the Elementary Education Act of 1930, all the primary schools, both Government and aided, were transferred from 1st July 1931 to the control of the Local Education Authorities who were charged with the responsibility for the consolidation, expansion and development of elementary education within the areas of their jurisdiction. The Local Education Authorities were empowered by the Act to supplement their resources by levying in

their respective areas an education cess. The Act also enjoined on the Local Education Authorities that they should, within a period of ten years after the Act came into force, submit to Government a programme of compulsory education of all children between the ages 6 and 12. Hardly was the Elementary Education Regulation of 1930 passed when the effects of the great economic depression of 1931-32 intervened crippling the financial resources of the local bodies. Within two or three years of the administration of primary education by the Local Education Authorities, it became clear to the Government that most of the local bodies were unable to undertake any expansion schemes. The hope in regard to the spread of elementary education which was entertained when the Act of 1930 was passed was not realised. The fact that expansion did not take place as contemplated when the Local Education Authorities were created, caused disappointment in the public mind, which found expression on several occasions. The Government were of the opinion that the slow progress made was not satisfactory and that it was desirable to have the matter fully investigated. For this purpose, a Committee on Elementary Education was constituted by the Government in 1937. The Committee was requested to examine the adequacy or otherwise of the progress achieved through the Elementary Education Act, the defects in the existing arrangements and the lines on which further efforts should be made. The survey made by the Committee on Elementary Education in 1938 showed that little progress had been made during the decade between 1927 and 1937 either in expansion or in combating illiteracy. From the statistics, concerning the number of institutions and pupils, collected by the Committee, they came to the conclusion that the scheme as outlined in the Elementary Education Act of 1930 had been practically a failure so far as expansion was concerned. Many causes contributed to the failure of the Act of 1930; the more important of them as explained by the Committee were the following:—

"(i) Under the scheme of the Act, responsibility for promulgation of expansion schemes has been divided. It is fixed no doubt first on the local bodies and in the event of their failure upon the Government with the result that local bodies did not or would not realise their responsibility to the full and adopted a waiting attitude.

(ii) The passive attitude was due to a great extent to their inability and reluctance to propose any scheme which directly involved their furnishing their quota of the cost which could be done in most cases only by having recourse to the levy of fresh taxation.

(iii) The local authorities were no doubt influenced by the fact that such a course would be an unpopular one at a time of depression."

The main obstacle in the path of expansion of elementary education was, of course, finance. The Committee considered that, however difficult the question of finance may be, the then stage of stagnation could not be allowed to continue, without detriment to the larger interest of the State. The Committee, therefore, recommended that the control of primary education be taken over by the Government and that the primary schools be administered by them through the Department of Public Instruction. In accordance with this recommendation, an Act called the Elementary Education Act of 1941 was passed and the Government assumed control of primary education from 1st July 1941. Under this new Act, all the schools under the Local Education Authorities were taken over and District Education Committees for each district and a Central Education Board for the whole State were constituted.

With the assumption of control over primary education with effect from 1st July 1941, in accordance with the Elementary Education Act of 1941, there was a phenomenal increase not only in the number of schools but also in enrolment. Unfortunately, the pupils did not remain in the schools for the full four-year course but dropped off in the second or the third year of the course. Consequently, wastage and stagnation in primary schools registered a sharp increase. It was, therefore, considered desirable to introduce compulsion so as to keep the children in the schools throughout the four-year course. But on account of the huge expenditure involved, it was not possible to introduce compulsion all at once. As a fore-runner of universal compulsion, the Elementary Education Act of 1941 was amended so as to bring into operation a scheme of compulsory attendance by which it was laid down that when a parent got his child admitted to a primary school, he should keep him there until the child completed the course or reached the age of 12 whichever was earlier. It became evident later that the scheme did not achieve the desired object of retaining pupils in the schools till the end of the course. The scheme also did not go far enough as it applied only to pupils who joined schools voluntarily. It left out of account the very large number of children who never joined at all. The scheme of compulsory attendance was, therefore, dropped and it was decided to introduce compulsory primary education by stages. Accordingly in 1948-49 compulsion was introduced in hobli headquarters in Chitradurga taluk.

After the assumption of control over primary education by the Government in 1941, primary education underwent a further change in its pattern. There were then two grades of primary schools, lower and upper. The primary school course was one of four years' duration on the completion of which a pupil was eligible for admission either to a middle school or to an upper primary school. There was no public examination at the end of

the primary school course. The upper primary school course consisted of six years, *i.e.*, the four-year course of the primary grade and another two years' course in which all the subjects of the middle school course except English were taught, the medium of instruction being the mother-tongue of the pupil. There was a public examination at the end of the upper primary course. Pupils who passed this examination were eligible to join the Teachers' Training School, providing a two-year course at the end of which there was a public examination, both theoretical and practical. A pupil who was successful in this examination was professionally qualified for being appointed as a teacher in a primary school. Pupils who passed the upper primary examination were permitted to take the middle school examination after study of English only for two years. These upper primary schools are extinct now as they were converted into New Type Middle Schools where English was also taught.

Efforts were continually made to improve, enrich and modify the curriculum of the primary schools. The curriculum in the old Mysore State was based on the " activity principles " with subjects such as drawing, singing, Nature study and gardening in addition to subjects like language, arithmetic, history and geography and civics.

During 1955-56, the term " primary education " again underwent a charge. Previously, it referred to the primary school education of four years' duration leading to a four-year middle school course which was called lower secondary. After the changes, the term " primary " meant an integrated course of eight years covering the primary and the middle school classes. The middle school classes were re-named as primary school V, VI, VII and VIII classes. But the primary schools and the middle schools continued to be different institutions, except in the case of New Type Middle Schools which had all the eight classes. There was no public examination either in the middle or at the end of the eight-year primary course. The old lower secondary public examination was abolished so as not to overburden the young pupil, by compelling him to sit for a public examination at that stage.

New pattern

After the States' reorganisation in the year 1956, it was found that the pattern of pre-college education varied from region to region. In order to achieve uniformity, a special Educational Integration Advisory Committee was set up to review the various aspects and to suggest measures to bring about uniformity. The recommendations of this special committee found favour with the Government, who passed final orders in 1959, ushering in a new era in the State's educational policy. According to the decision of the Government, the State's primary and secondary stages of education were reorganised for a seven-year course of primary education and a four-year course of higher secondary education. It was decided

that the pre-college education throughout the State should consist of an 11-year course—seven years of primary education and four years of higher secondary education. Education was made free in all grades of primary schools, maintained by Government or local bodies.

Under this new pattern, the primary education in the State has evolved itself into an integrated (basic) course of seven years from Standards I to VII. The schools having Standards I to IV are called Junior Primary Schools and schools having Standards V to VII (with or without the first four standards) are called Senior Primary Schools.

Curricula of Studies

Throughout the seven-year primary course, a broad-based general education is imparted. It consists of the mother-tongue, core-subjects (general mathematics, general science and social studies), arts and crafts, common activities and physical education. English language is introduced from Standard V and Hindi from Standard VI. In respect of non-Kannada schools, Kannada (regional language) is introduced as an additional optional subject from Standard IV. The media of instruction in the primary schools of Chitradurga district are Kannada, Urdu and Tamil.

Compulsory primary education has been in force in the whole of the State, with effect from 1st August 1961. A child who has completed five years and 10 months on 22nd May of a calendar year must be admitted to an approved primary school. However, children who have completed the age of 5 years may also be admitted to the 1st Standard in primary schools on a voluntary basis. Admissions of candidates by private study to standards II, III and IV are restricted to those who have completed the age of 6, 7 and 8 years respectively, provided they are found fit in a test held by the head of the institution into which the candidate seeks admission.

The assessment of children in the primary schools is done on a five-point scale by holding monthly tests. These tests are generally conducted in the last week of the month. The maximum marks in each subject are fixed at 50. The promotions are done as per departmental rules. The minimum attendance for promotions is 50 per cent for Standard I, 55 per cent for Standard II, 60 per cent for Standards III and IV. In Standards V and VI two tests are held, one in each of the first and second terms in addition to one mid-session and the annual examination. The minimum attendance for Standards V and VI is 65 per cent of the total working days. The VII Standard examination is a district-level common examination. Candidates obtaining not less than 30 per cent of marks in each individual subject and 35 per cent in aggregate are declared to have passed the VII Standard and are eligible to join the high school classes. A minimum attendance of not less

than two-thirds of the total number of working days is necessary for pupils taking the VII Standard examination.

The number of periods in the primary schools from Standard III onwards is eight on full working days and five on half working days, the total school working hours being 30 a week. In regard to the first two Standards, the number of periods is 55 per week, each period being of 30 minutes. The number of working days in primary schools in a year is 220. The primary school year commences from 22nd May of each calendar year and has two spells of holidays in the middle, *viz.*, the Dasara holidays for three weeks from *Mahalaya Amavasya* and Christmas holidays for a week from the 24th December. There are two terms in the school year, the first term from 22nd May to *Mahalaya Amavasya* and the second term from the day of opening of the school after the Dasara holidays to 10th April. The schools close for the summer vacation for six weeks.

The District Educational Officer is the controlling officer who is responsible for the administration and control of primary education in the district. Immediately under him, there is an Assistant District Educational Officer for each Sub-Division—Davangere and Chitradurga. There are 11 Inspectors and 11 Deputy Inspectors in the whole district.

The district has taken a big stride in the field of primary education. Junior primary schools and senior primary schools have been opened wherever possible. The scheme of compulsory primary education has been responsible for the large student strength in several standards of primary schools. The following statement gives the number of schools and of teachers, taluk-wise, in the district in 1964-65 :

Taluk		Teachers	Jr. Primary Schools: Boys' Schools	Jr. Primary Schools: Girls' Schools	Sr. Primary Schools: Boys' Schools	Sr. Primary Schools: Girls' Schools
1		2	3	4	5	6
Challakere	..	488	100	2	50	1
Chitradurga	..	664	132	10	63	2
Hiriyur	..	401	134	1	54	..
Hosadurga	..	361	134	1	37	1
Molakalmuru	..	337	48	..	10	1
Davangere	..	503	99	10	67	5
Harihar	..	246	61	1	29	1
Holalkere	..	368	130	..	44	1
Jagalur	..	356	97	1	19	1
Davangere Sub-Division (Urdu)	..	344	49	4	14	2
Chitradurga Sub-Division (Urdu)	..	145	36	6	14	2
Total	..	4,210	1,019	36	410	17

According to the figures published by the statistical section of the office of the Director of Public Instruction, the total strength in all the primary school standards during 1964-65 was 1,69,677. The following table indicates the break-up according to different standards.

Standard		*Boys*	*Girls*
I	..	26,948	26,668
II	..	19,731	10,326
III	..	15,525	11,227
IV	..	11,639	6,915
V	..	8,557	4,052
VI	..	7,679	3,172
VII	..	8,445	2,793
Total	..	98,524	71,153

Mysore Compulsory Primary Education Act, 1961

One of the most important programmes included in the Third Five-Year Plan was the expansion and improvement of primary education, making it universal, free and compulsory. The Union Government decided that a beginning should be made from the year 1961-62 and that at least 90 per cent of the children of the age-group 6-11 should be brought into the schools by the end of 1965-66. The Mysore State took up this task in right earnest and necessary steps were taken to implement the compulsory education scheme by stages, starting with children of the age-group 6—7 during 1961-62 and extending it to the next age groups in succeeding years so that by the end of the Third Plan period, the whole of the age-group 6—11 was covered. For this purpose, the Mysore Compulsory Primary Education Act, 1961, was passed by the State Legislature in April 1961 and its provisions were brought into force with effect from the 1st April 1961, throughout the State. Under this scheme, the number of children enumerated in 1965-66 was 1,53,684 (boys—81,850, girls—71,834). The number of children enrolled was 1,45,302 (75,671 boys and 69,631 girls), thus registering a percentage of 92.4 and 96.9, respectively and exceeding the percentage target. The enrolment of children in general has been very encouraging even without recourse to penal provisions of the Act. As an incentive to the work of enrolment of children, a scheme of awarding gold medals and certificates of merit to officers and rolling shields to offices at the taluk, district and State levels has been instituted from the year 1962-63.

Basic Schools

There were in all 50 Basic Schools with a total strength of 4,707 in the entire district in 1964-65. Basic education, sponsored by the Father of the Nation, gained importance during the post-war period, more particularly after the dawn of Independence. This scheme emphasises the principle that education must centre round some suitable basic craft chosen with due regard to the occupations of the locality. It is the pivot of the entire teaching to which all the other subjects are to be correlated. Besides, it provides full and free scope to the physical, cultural and social development of the individual so as to enable him to contribute his utmost to the well-being of the society. It was, therefore, decided that the system of basic education be tried as an experimental measure. As a result of this decision, departmental officers were deputed to Wardha and Shantiniketan for training in basic education who, on their return, trained other teachers so as to enable them to impart instruction in basic primary schools. The Committee on Educational Reforms proposed that in all the existing academic types of primary schools, a craft should be introduced in addition to the academic subjects. These were to be named as craft primary schools. Besides craft education, cultural activities like dancing, folk arts and singing were to be conducted. In these basic schools, crafts such as agriculture,

gardening, spinning, weaving, sericulture, woodcraft, smithy, laundering and poultry-keeping are taught. The teachers needed for these basic schools are drawn from the Basic Training Institution at Vidyanagar near Bangalore and the Government Basic Training Centre, Davangere. These institutions were specially established for the purpose of training teachers in basic education. Usually experienced teachers in service who have already had three years' training in general principles and methods of education are given an intensive training for ten months. During this ten months' period, they are given training in spinning and gardening in addition to instruction given in the principles and practice of basic education and child psychology with special reference to the application of the technique of correlated teaching. The cost per scholar under basic education was Rs. 31.8, whereas for general education it was Rs. 24.5, in 1964-65. Children in these basic schools are given instruction in crafts for three hours in a day and the rest of the school time is devoted to music, drawing and other arts, physical education and cultural activities. Mid-day meals are being provided for pupils of these schools. Health education and training in citizenship receive full attention. The school is treated as an assembly, electing its own leaders for carrying out specific duties.

Secondary Education

The term "secondary education" is applied to a three-year high school stage leading up to the secondary school leaving certificate examination. Pupils who successfully complete the primary school VII Standard are eligible for admission to the VIII Standard of the high school.

Kannada as the medium of instruction was tried in certain selected high schools during the year 1931-32. Encouraged by the success of the experiment, it was gradually introduced from subject to subject and from school to school. By 1937, all non-language subjects were taught through the Kannada medium in all Government high schools where there were more than one section in each class. In effect, each Government high school had only one section of each class with English as the medium of instruction and the other sections had the Kannada medium. It was specifically laid down that only those pupils whose mother-tongue or second language was not Kannada should be admitted to the English medium sections and all others to the Kannada medium sections. Despite this rule, there was a growing tendency on the part of the public to demand admission to the English medium sections, in preference to Kannada medium sections, particularly in view of the fact that those who entered the University had to get instruction through the English medium. In view of the large and persistent demand for admission to English medium sections, it was ordered in 1945 that a second English medium section be opened in all Government high schools wherever necessary. Subsequently, it was represented in the Houses of Legislature and in the Press that

Kannada should be the sole medium of instruction in all high schools. The fact that Kannada should be the medium of instruction in high schools has passed the stage of argument. It is accepted by all educationists that instruction should be imparted through the mother-tongue. It has been reported that pupils taught through the Kannada medium had definitely shown a better comprehension of the subject and they expressed themselves in a better manner and also that their performance at the examination was better than that of the others. This showed the advantages of adopting the regional language as the medium of instruction. In almost all the multi-section high schools, non-language subjects are taught through the medium of Kannada. In regard to high schools with only one section in each class, the medium of instruction is usually Kannada, but there are a few schools which have the English medium, depending upon the preference of the local public.

At the end of three-year high school course, the pupils are sent up to appear for the secondary school leaving certificate public examination. Recently, the Government has entrusted the conducting of this examination to a statutory board.

New pattern

The normal pattern of secondary education in the State is a three-year course comprising Standards VIII, IX and X. From the year 1964-65, XI Standard has been introduced in a few selected Higher Secondary Schools, provisionally adopting the syllabuses of the Pre-University courses of the respective Universities in the State. In a few other high schools in the State, diversified courses like agriculture, commerce, a technical subject and the like have been introduced and such schools are called Multi-purpose High Schools. During 1964-65, there were in all three Higher Secondary Schools and two Multi-purpose High Schools in the district.

As regards admission to the high school Standard VIII, a pass in the primary VII Standard district-level examination or any other equivalent examination is necessary. The high school VIII Standard is an exploratory year imparting only general education. The subjects included under general education are three or more languages, core subjects (general science, general mathematics and social studies), a craft, physical education and an art subject (music, dance, drawing or painting). The languages to be studied included regional language or mother-tongue or a classical language, or a composite course, compulsory Hindi and compulsory English. In addition to general education (except the art subjects dropped after the VIII Standard) electives are introduced in IX and X Standards. The electives so introduced consist of eight groups, *viz.*, humanities, science, a technical subject, agriculture, commerce, home science, fine arts and fisheries. Pupils have to opt for any one of these groups and study three or more subjects prescribed thereunder. The regional language, Kannada, is the chief medium of instruction in respect of non-language subjects, although provision has been made for teaching them through the media of

minority languages, viz., English, Hindi, Urdu, Marathi, Tamil and Telugu, wherever necessary.

No candidate is permitted to take the VIII or IX Standard examination by private study. The assessment is made on a five-point scale and a candidate should secure at least a 'D' grade (30—39 per cent) for a pass in each of those subjects.

The high school year commences from 1st June of each calendar year and closes on 10th April of the succeeding calendar year with two spells in the middle, *viz.*, Dasara holidays for three weeks from *Mahalaya Amavasya* and Christmas holidays for a week from 24th December. There are two terms in the school year. The schools close for summer vacation for 50 days from 11th April to the end of May. The total number of working days in respect of high schools has been raised from 200 to 210 days with effect from the school year 1964-65.

Aid to High Schools

To encourage popular efforts in starting and maintaining secondary schools, the State Government have liberalised grants to aided high schools. Only registered bodies which abide by the rules of the department are permitted to start schools. A maintenance grant at the rate of 80 per cent of the net authorised cost of maintenance (expenditure) in urban areas with a population of 50,000 and above and at the rate of 85 per cent in rural areas is allowed.

In 1965, there were 69 high schools in the district, including higher secondary and multi-purpose high schools. The number of higher secondary schools was three and that of multi-purpose schools two. Of the other 64 high schools, only seven were run by Government, seven by various municipalities, seven by taluk boards and 43 by private agencies. Of the higher secondary schools, two were run by Government and the other by a private agency. The following figures indicate the taluk-wise break-up of the high schools in the district.

Taluk		*No. of High Schools*	*Higher Secondary High Schools*	*Multi-purpose Schools*
Chitradurga	..	6	1	2
Challakere	..	5	1	..
Hiriyur	..	10	..	..
Molakalmuru	..	3	1	..
Davangere	..	14	..	..
Harihar	..	6	..	..
Jagalur	..	4	..	..
Holalkere	..	9	..	..
Hosadurga	..	7	..	..
Total	..	64	3	2

During 1964-65, there were in all 18,034 pupils studying in various high schools in the district. The following table indicates the break-up in different standards.

Standard VIII		Standard X	
Boys	*Girls*	*Boys*	*Girls*
6,158	1,544	2,678	550

Standard IX		Standard XI	
Boys	*Girls*	*Boys*	*Girls*
5,711	1,323	60	1

The Mysore Secondary School Leaving Certificate examination is conducted in four parts. Part I comprises regional language or classical language or mother-tongue or composite course and compulsory Hindi. Part II consists of compulsory English, Part III of core subjects and Part IV of electives. A pass in each of the four parts is necessary for a pupil to seek admission either to the Pre-University course of the University or to the higher secondary XI Standard. During the 1965 public examination, 3,271 pupils appeared and of these 659 passed in all the four parts, giving a percentage of 20.2.

Girls' High Schools

Separate high shools for girls were three in number in the district in 1965. They were the Girls' Higher Secondary School at Chitradurga, the Girls' High School at Davangere and St. Paul's Convent Girls' High School at Davangere. It is the policy of the Mysore Government to open separate high schools for girls to advance women's education, and with this object in view, girls' high schools have been opened where there is sufficient demand. In other places where the number of girls seeking admission to high schools does not warrant the starting of a separate high school, the girls are admitted into boys' schools. In respect of women's education, it was felt that the pattern of education imparted to girls did not suit their temperaments and needs and a diversification of courses of studies at the lower and higher secondary stages of education was found necessary. Consequently, the revised syllabus of the secondary school leaving certificate course has provided for the study of domestic arts and science subjects under the optional group.

Higher Education

Though the University of Mysore was established as early as in 1916, higher education in some of the districts of the old Mysore State had not made much headway prior to attainment of Independence. It was in 1947 that an Intermediate College was established at Davangere, followed by another such college at Chitradurga in the year 1948.

The Bapuji Educational Association was founded in the year 1957 by a group of social workers of Davangere, who were interested in promoting the cause of higher education in Chitradurga district. The D. R. M. College was started as an Intermediate College in 1947 and named after *Dharmaratnakara* Rajanahalli Muddurayappa, whose munificent donation enabled the Government to start the institution, the first of its kind in the district, as, prior to 1947, there was not a single college in the whole of the district. In 1957, the Bapuji Educational Association took a bold step in shouldering the responsibility of starting the much-needed degree classes in this college. The whole-hearted support of the philanthropists of that place enabled the Association to convert it into a full-fledged first grade college. At present, the D.R.M. College imparts instruction for the Pre-University and the three-year B.A., B.Sc. and B.Com degree courses. **D.R.M.College, Davangere**

The college is located on the Davangere—Channagiri Road and is within easy reach of the city. Transport facilities are available to students coming from Harihar and other nearby places also. The D.R.M. College is under the administrative control of the Governing Council of the Bapuji Educational Association, Davangere. The Governing Council consists of a president, three vice-presidents, a treasurer, two honorary secretaries and nine members, all non-officials. The college council consists of all the members of the teaching staff with the Principal as President and a member of the staff as Secretary. Its functions are only advisory in character. All matters relating to discipline, concessions, promotions and internal administration are discussed by the college council.

The college offers the following courses of study—

1. *Pre-University Course.*—Arts, Science and Commerce. The course extends over a period of one year and it consists of the following subjects.—

Part I—English.

Part II—Any one of the following languages : (*a*) Kannada, (*b*) Sanskrit, (c) Hindi and (*d*) Urdu.

Part III—One of the following combinations : (1) History, Economics and Logic, (2) History, Economics and Commerce, (3) Physics, Chemistry and Biology, (4) Physics, Chemistry and Mathematics, and (5) Chemistry, Botany and Zoology.

2. *Three-year degree courses.*—The three-year degree courses available in the college are Arts (B.A.), Science (B.Sc.) and Commerce (B.Com).

The course of study leading to the B.A. degree comprises the following :

Part I—English.

Part II—Language (Kannada, Sanskrit, Hindi or Urdu).

Part III—One of the following combinations—
History, Economics (Major) and Sociology (Minor), History, Economics (Major) and Politics (Minor), History. Politics (Major) and Economics (Minor), Politics, Sociology (Major) and Economics (Minor), Economics, Sociology (Major) and Politics (Minor) and Economics, Sociology (Major) and History (Minor).

The B.Sc. degree course comprises English, languages, and science subjects like Physics, Mathematics, Chemistry and Biology.

The B.Com. degree course comprises English, Kannada or Hindi, economic geography, modern economic development and statistics, mercantile law, advanced accounting and advanced banking.

There were during 1965-66, 433 pupils in the Pre-University classes and 361 pupils in the B.A., B.Sc., and B.Com. classes.

The staff of the college consisted of the Principal and 41 others including Readers, Lecturers, and Demonstrators. The college is affiliated to the Mysore University.

First Grade College, Chitradurga

The First Grade College, Chitradurga, was started by the State Government in 1948, and is also serving the needs of higher education in the district. It was founded as an Intermediate College with an initial enrolment of 164 pupils. As there was no separate building, the college was housed in the District Board building—a stone structure not far from the district offices. As a result of increased strength, it was felt necessary to shift it to a more spacious building. A new building was constructed away from the town on the Hiriyur road in a 40-acre plot. Adjacent to the new building is a fine sports pavilion, which owes its origin to the munificence of His Holiness Sri Murugharajendra Swamiji, who donated a sum of Rs. 15,000 towards the cost of the pavilion.

This college was upgraded in 1958 by starting the three-year degree course. The courses offered in the college are Pre-University, B.A. and B.Sc. There are three groups in the B.A. classes, *viz.*, Economics, Politics and Sociology, Economics, Sociology and History and Economics, Kannada and History. In the B.Sc.

classes, there are two combinations, *viz.*, Physics, Chemistry and Mathematics and Botany, Zoology and Chemistry.

During 1965-66, there were 39 boys and 3 girls in the arts section of the Pre-University classes and 260 boys and 31 girls in the science section of the same course. The following table indicates the strength in the three-year degree courses.

Course		*Boys*	*Girls*	*Total*
B.A. I year	..	42	4	46
B.A. II yer	..	41	6	47
B.A. III year	..	28	7	35
B.Sc. I year	..	164	12	176
B.Sc. II year	..	94	11	105
B.Sc. III year	..	84	14	98

The staff of the college consisted of a Principal, one Reader, 43 Lecturers and five Demonstrators.

TECHNICAL AND PROFESSIONAL EDUCATION

B.D.T. College of Engineering

The B.D.T. College of Engineering was founded in the year 1951. The northern districts of the old Mysore State at that time had no facilities for technological training for quite a long time. As a result of sustained efforts made by some public-spirited citizens of Davangere, the Government of Mysore accepted a donation of Rs. 1.5 lakhs from Shri T. Chandranna on behalf of Brahmappa Devendrappa Thavanappanavar and approved the establishment of an Engineering College at Davangere. The Government also accepted the suggestion to name the college as "B.D.T. College of Engineering".

The college started working from October 1951, as a Civil Engineering College with 80 pupils on its rolls. Subsequently, the University of Mysore, after a thorough examination of all the available facilities, granted affiliation. The city municipality of Davangere allotted an area of 20 acres on the outskirts of the city for a new college building. The main college building was constructed on this plot of land and started working in the new building from the second week of October 1954.

On the recommendation of the All-India Council of Technical Education, the development of the college was included in the schemes under the successive Plans. Accordingly, the college was upgraded in 1957 by introducing additional courses of mechanical and electrical engineering. Again in 1959, the five-year integrated course, as approved by the University of Mysore, was introduced and 120 students were admitted to the new course in the academic year 1959-60. The college possesses well-equipped workshops and

laboratories to train students. The sanctioned intake into the college each year is 180 students for all the three branches of engineering. The B.D.T. College of Engineering is a Government College under the administrative control of the Director of Technical Education in Mysore, Bangalore.

During 1965-66, the total strength in the college was 610. The college had a Principal, two Professors, 11 Assistant Professors and 41 Lecturers.

Medical College, Davangere

The Jagadguru Jayadeva Murugharajendraswamy Medical College, Davangere, started on 18th September 1965, owes its existence to the munificent donation of Rs. 10 lakhs graciously given by His Holiness Sri Jagadguru Jayadeva Murugharajendra Swamiji of Chitradurga. The Bapuji Educational Society, through whose efforts a number of educational institutions have sprung up, undertook to run this Medical College with the help of the State Government. The Chief Minister of Mysore inaugurated this Medical College in September 1965. At present the pre-professional classes of the college are being conducted in the D.R.M. College. The college provides instruction to students for the M.B.B.S. degree of the Mysore University. A total of 120 pupils were admitted to the pre-professional course in 1965 The staff of the college consisted of a Principal, two professors and four lecturers. The Chigateri General Hospital at Davangere was being expanded to serve as a teaching hospital.

D.R.R. Polytechnic, Davangere

The D. R. R. Polytechnic, Davangere, was started as an Occupational Institute in the year 1949, imparting training in the basic courses at the diploma level in civil, mechanical and electrical engineering. The course extends over three years at the end of which, the students are awarded diplomas. The intake is 50 for civil, 40 for electrical and 40 mechanical sections. The strength in the polytechnic as on 1st July 1965, was as follows :—

		Civil	*Electrical*	*Mechanical*
I year	..	49	40	40
II year	..	34	42	39
III year	..	50	31	32

A certificate course of two years' duration in tailoring is also conducted with an intake of 20 students. The strength in this section in 1965-66 was 19 in the first year and 4 in the 2nd year.

The staff of the Polytechnic consisted of a Principal and 27 technical teachers.

The School of Arts and Crafts, Davangere, is located in the D.R.R. Polytechnic building and offers a three-year special diploma course in fine arts (drawing and painting) and commercial arts. This institution was started by the State Government during the academic year 1964-65 with an intake of 30 in both fine arts and commercial arts. The strength during 1965-66 in the school was 7 in the first year and 17 in the second year. The staff consists of a Principal, two heads of sections and 8 lecturers and assistant lecturers. The Principal of the D.R.R. Polytechnic is also in charge of the School of Arts and Crafts.

School of Arts and Crafts, Davangere

The Industrial Training Centre, Davangere, was started in the year 1957 by the Department of Labour, Employment and Training, to impart instruction in welding, draughtsmanship and the like. The course is of two years' duration. The number of students who were on the rolls for various trades during 1965-66 was as follows:

Industrial Training Centre, Davangere

Turners	..	..	23
Welders	..	..	33
Fitters	..	..	64
Draughtsmanship	..	..	11
Mechanical	..	..	29
	Total	..	160

There were in all 13 instructors with a Principal. The Principal of the D.R.R. Polytechnic is working as the *ex-officio* Principal of the Industrial Training Centre also.

OTHER INSTITUTIONS

The Government B.Ed. College, Davangere, was started on the 10th August 1965, to impart training in modern methods of teaching. This institution is at present housed in a portion of the Moti Veerappa High School building in the western extension of the city near the Chigateri General Hospital. The college draws teachers from Government and non-Government high schools, as also private degree holders, who have to study for one year to obtain the B.Ed. degree of the Mysore University. The strength in the institution during 1965-66 was 84 men and 6 women. The staff of the college consisted of a Principal, one Professor of Education and seven lecturers.

B.Ed. College, Davangere

The Government Basic Training Institute, Davangere, was started on 15th August 1960 to impart specialised instruction to teachers for the Teachers' Certificate Higher (T.C.H.). The total strength of the Institute as on 1st January 1966 was 100, of whom 25 teachers were deputed from various departmental schools

Basic Training Institute, Davangere

and 75 were private candidates. Originally, the Institute was for men teachers only. But since 1964-65, the Institute is reserved only for lady teachers. The duration of the course is one year, after which a certificate is given. The course of studies includes psychology, basic education, crafts, spinning and weaving, card-board moulding, auxiliary crafts, school administration, music drawing, kitchen gardening and physical education. The staff of the Institute consists of a Principal, three graduate teachers, two craft teachers, one Kannada pandit, one drill instructor and a part-time music teacher. The Institute is located in the premises of the Government High School.

Basic Training Institute, Hosadurga

The Government Basic Training Institute, Hosadurga, was started in 1961. The intake in the Institute is 100 and the actual strength as on 1st January 1966 was 93. The Institute offers specialised instruction to teachers to get a Teachers' Certificate Higher.

Teachers' Training Institute, Chitradurga

The Teachers' Training Institute, Chitradurga, is the oldest training institute in the district started in the early thirties to train teachers to obtain certificates of the lower category. The Institute has an intake of 80 and the actual strength as on 1st January 1966 was also 80. This Institute is mainly intended to train teachers for the primary classes.

Teachers' Training Institute, Malladihalli

The Teachers' Training Institute, Malladihalli, is a private training institute started by the founder of the Malladihalli Anathasevashram in Holalkere taluk in 1962. The intake is 100 and during 1965-66 there were 96 teachers getting specialised training in teaching. The Institute is recognised by the Department of Public Instruction.

SOCIAL EDUCATION

Adult Literacy

Since the adoption of the Indian Constitution in 1950, adult education has assumed a significant importance. It was felt essential that the vast majority of people steeped in illiteracy and ignorance should be educated so that they can understand and discharge their duties as citizens. Besides this, the general aim of adult education is to bring about an all-round improvement of the villages and to enable the rural population to lead an enriched physical, social and cultural life. Adult education work was started in the erstwhile Mysore State as early as in 1965. In 1912, the late Dr. M. Visvesvaraya, then Dewan of Mysore, made an attempt at mass education by opening night schools for the benefit of illiterates in some villages which had primary schools, and by establishing a net-work of circulating libraries in the State. Nearly 6,000 to 7,000 literacy classes flourished in the State at that time. A magazine called *Vijnana* (Science) was also started to

popularise scientific knowledge. But afterwards, the scheme of adult education did not receive much attention till the attainment of independence in 1947.

In 1945, the Mysore State Adult Education Council was formed with the aid of a Government grant. The activities of the council included conducting of not only literacy classes and follow-up libraries, but also reading classes for literate adults, central libraries, publication of literary text books and books suitable for adults. The Council is conducting literacy classes for both men and women in the district. The adult education programme entered a new phase with the advent of the Community Development Programme in the year 1952. Both men and women social education organisers were appointed in every community development block in the district. The adult education scheme was no longer confined to literacy, but in it were included also education in citizenship, health, agriculture and handicrafts.

There is one special institution, *i.e.*, Yoga Physical Culture Institute at Chitradurga imparting instruction in yogic culture. Many boys have been benefited by this course.

Archaeological Museum, Chitradurga

There is only one museum of historical and archaeological interest situated at Chitradurga where collections of antiquarian interest relating to the Nayak Paleyagars are exhibited. After the States' Reorganisation, the late Mr. Hullur Srinivasa Jois, who was a Member of the Mysore Representative Assembly, thought of establishing this museum and he was encouraged to proceed with it. He enlisted the co-operation of the Director of Archaeology and established the museum in two rooms at the eastern fort entrance. The collection is divided into many categories, *viz.*, archaeology and ethnography, old coins current during Paleyagar rule, pictures depicting several wars and old manuscripts of the hoary days of the Nayaka rule. The museum is visited daily by a number of people. No entrance fee is collected and admission is free during specified hours. The Curator is paid a small honorarium to look after the exhibits. No visitor of Chitradurga can afford to miss visiting this interesting museum located at the very entrance to the fort.

Parks

Apart from the municipal parks, Chitradurga district does not have any botanical gardens. In the headquarters town, a small garden is being maintained in front of the P.W.D. Pump House. Attractive flower beds are laid out with clean paths for people to move about. In Davangere, a park is being maintained in the compound of the new Municipal Office building which is also open to the public. An extensive new park has been laid out in front of the Chigateri General Hospital for recreation of the people. In other taluk headquarters, small parks are located in front of the town halls.

Literary Contribution

No description of educational and cultural activities in Chitradurga district would be complete without a mention of some men of letters who attained fame and shed lustre in the field of Kannada literature. Whenever Chitradurga is spoken of in relation to modern Kannada literature, the names of the late Sri Talukina Venkannaiya and late Sri Hullur Srinivasa Jois come to one's mind. Both have left indelible marks of their literary greatness. Sri Venkannaiya, who hailed from the district, became a professor in Mysore University and wrote a number of literary works. The late Sri Hullur Srinivasa Jois was known for his historical books on the Nayak dynasty. In recent years Sri T. R. Subba Rao known as Ta. Ra. Su. has captivated the minds of the Kannada reading public by his novels, especially historical novels, on the Nayak rule. The Swamijis of the Murugharajendra and Sirigere Mathas contributed much to Veerashaiva philosophic thought. They have written commentaries on Veerashaiva philosophy. Among those who lived for a long time in the district, the name of the late Sri M. S. Puttanna may be mentioned. In his days, he was a giant of the Kannada literary world. He has written a number of works, the most important of which is the satirical work, "Madiddunno Maharaya". He has also written treatises on the Paleyagar rule. Sri B. Rama Rao, retired Director of Geology and Mines, who hails from the district has to his credit the well-known book "Memoirs".

Music, drama and dance

As the district is in close proximity to the Northern Karnatak areas, classical South Indian music has not made much headway. The Hindustani style of music is more popular in Chitradurga district. Famous musicians are occasionally invited to give concerts at Davangere and other places.

As regards dramatic troupes, the Shivayogi Bakkeshwara Sangeeta Nataka Mandali of Davangere is a noted institution. This Mandali was started in 1946 by several merchants of Davangere in memory of Shri Shivayogi Bakkeshwara Swami. This is not a professional troupe. Their dramas "Akka Mahadevi" and "Kayakave Kailasa" are well known. The K.B.R. Drama Company is another popular dramatic association of the place. Several leading dramatic troupes from other parts of the State also entertain the art loving public of the district, by staging their popular plays, now and then.

Dancing is taught in a few schools of the district and is becoming popular.

CHAPTER XVI

MEDICAL AND PUBLIC HEALTH SERVICES

Early History

A well-regulated practice of giving prompt attention to the sick seems to have characterised the Ayurveda system even from very early times. But, unfortunately, no records are available throwing light on this indigenous system as practised in the district in ancient times. Some old manuscripts preserved in the Chitradurga museum show that the Paleyagars had personal physicians of renown to attend on them. The services of these physicians were requisitioned not only in the palace precincts but also in the country side. These indigenous *vaidyas* seem to have used the herbs and plants available in the Jogimaradi range of hills. Several well-known pandits enjoyed royal patronage and also moved freely in the villages tending the sick. There does not seem to be much doubt that both the indigenous systems of medicine, Ayurveda and Unani, were extensively practised during the centuries that preceded the introduction of the allopathic system.

It was after the fourth Mysore War in 1799, when the Britishers established themselves, that the allopathic or western system was ushered in. After the assumption of the Government of the State by the British in 1831, the Surgeon to the Mysore Commission was in general control of vaccination. Later, with the establishment of district hospitals in the several divisions, a Civil Surgeon was appointed in the headquarters of each of the divisions and this officer was also the Superintendent of local jails and Inspector of all medical institutions within the limits of the division. The medical institutions in the Chitradurga district were also being inspected by the Deputy Surgeon-General of the Indian Medical Department for Mysore and the Ceded Districts. In addition to this inspection work, he also performed the duties of the Sanitary Commissioner and Registrar of Vital Statistics. In 1880, the Deputy Surgeon-General was withdrawn and his duties, so far as Mysore was concerned, were transferred to the Surgeon to the Mysore Commission.

The post-rendition period saw a complete reorganisation of the medical set-up. In May 1884, a new scheme for the establishment of a local medical service composed of duly qualified doctors

was introduced. The head of the Medical Department, being the seniormost of the covenanted Medical Officers, was called the Senior Surgeon. The local Medical Officers were classified as Surgeons, Assistant Surgeons and Hospital Assistants. In 1888, a new cadre of Sub-Assistant Surgeons was created.

Side by side, the public health administration of the district was also reorganised so as to make it more useful and efficient. The Senior Surgeon to the Government was made the *ex-officio* Sanitary Commissioner in 1887. The functions of the Sanitary Commissioner were scrutiny and compilation of birth and death returns, supervision of vaccination and control of epidemics such as plague, cholera and small-pox. From 1898 to 1902, a Special Plague Commissioner was appointed to check the spread of the deadly disease. The organization of the Sanitary Department underwent a change in 1907 when a separate sanitary service was introduced. The Chitradurga district was brought under the Western Division for purposes of public health with a Divisional Sanitary Officer. Between 1909 and 1910, the posts of Divisional Sanitary Officers were abolished and a new cadre of District Sanitary Officers was created. These District Sanitary Officers were placed under the Deputy Commissioner of the district. In 1917, a full-time Sanitary Commissioner was appointed as the head of the Department. The District Medical Officer in Chitradurga became *ex-officio* District Sanitary Officer also. Later on, the set-up underwent rapid changes, each district being placed under a separate District Health Officer getting guidance from a Central Sanitary Board, consisting of officials and non-officials. This in short is a brief review of the medical and public health organisation in the early days.

Vital Statistics

Vital statistics are intimately connected with the variation in population and the birth and death rates. Rise or fall in population is attributed to the condition of health of the people of a particular area and the reasons for increase or decrease are analysed on the basis of migration of persons, epidemics, famine, distress and other natural causes. In the early days, there was no special agency for registration of births and deaths other than the village patels. These village servants were required to send monthly returns to the Taluk Office from where the lists were transmitted to the District Office to be later forwarded to the Sanitary Commissioner's Office. In order to secure better registration of vital occurrences, rules were revised in 1915-16 according to which Inspecting Officers scrutinised entries in the actual registers. In 1918, a new regulation was introduced to improve the system of collection, compilation and publication of vital statistics. It was based on the Madras Law of 1899. Under the revised regulation, the entries in regard to births and deaths had to be certified by a technical officer after a sample check-up in the area concerned.

This method was helpful in removing irregular and exaggerated entries.

The following table gives the variations in the total population of the district for the first six decades of the century.

Census year		*Total Population*	*Increase or Decrease*	*Net variation*
1901	..	510,625	..	..
1911	..	563,874	+ 53,249	..
1921	..	574,952	+ 11,078	..
1931	..	657,452	+ 82,500	..
1941	..	726,281	+ 68,829	..
1951	..	868,370	+142,089	..
1961	..	1,094,284	+225,914	+583,659

Birth and Death Rates

From the above figures, it is seen that the population of the district has more than doubled during the period. In the decade 1951-1961, the net increase was 225,914, the highest during the preceding decades, attributable to a falling death rate and a higher birth rate. The perceptible decline in the death rate is due to the improvements in medical attention and the efficacy of modern drugs.

The birth and death rates for the year 1921 were 17.83 and 11.86, respectively and in 1931 the rates were 23.96 and 15.82, respectively. In 1941, the figures were 21.3 and 16.1 respectively, while in 1951, the figures were 22.2 and 8.0. In recent years, *i.e.*, in 1958 and 1964, the rates were 15.6 and 6.2, 12.9 and 4.1, respectively.

Infant mortality was at its highest in 1930, being 101.1 per mille. But in 1958, it was 41.1 and in 1959, 45.5 per mille. With the progressive implementation of maternity and child welfare schemes and the introduction of modern midwifery, infant mortality is being greatly reduced. During 1963-64, it had decreased to 36.4. Constant attention is now being paid to see that all indigenous *dais* are properly trained. The establishment of health units in rural areas with properly trained health visitors has helped in educating the population in scientific methods of maternity and child welfare.

The total mortality from various causes in the district during 1963-64 was as follows:—

Cause	*Number of deaths*
Malaria	Nil
Other fevers	900
Dysentery and Diarrhoea	290
Tuberculosis	216
Typhoid	140
Small Pox	116
Snake bites	5
All other causes	2,325

From the table given below, it is apparent that respiratory diseases, ulcers, digestive disorders, diarrhoea and skin diseases have the highest incidence. The total number of cases treated in the various medical institutions in the district in 1963-64 is given below:

Disease	*Number treated*
Respiratory diseases	47,663
Ulcers	35,294
'Other' fevers	17,228
Digestive diseases	23,960
Diarrhoea	19,459
Malaria	42
Dysentery	11,526
Anaemia	5,994
Skin diseases	10,755
Pneumonia	1,934
Worms	3,415
All other diseases	1,03,115

Epidemics

As in other districts, cholera, small-pox and plague were the main periodical infections which at times assumed epidemic proportions. Since 1952, the district has been more or less free from plague. In 1959-60, ratfalls were noticed in the villages of Thalaghatta and Thalikatte, but no attacks were reported. The Public Health authorities took prompt steps to prevent ratfalls by spraying Hexidol.

Plague

Plague first broke out in Bangalore on the 12th August 1898 and spread with increasing virulence in every direction of the old Mysore State. The outbreak of this epidemic defied all human efforts made for its suppression. The fell disease which engulfed the whole of Chitradurga took a heavy toll. Precise figures of mortality are not available in respect of the district for the first year of the epidemic, but it can be surmised that out of a total

mortality figure of 12,000 for the State, nearly a thousand people perished in this district. The Epidemic Diseases Regulation of 1897 was put into operation for meeting the emergency. Accommodation was provided in camps outside villages and towns. Infected houses were subjected to systematic disinfection.

During the period 1935-1951, there was no year which was free from plague. The district passed through a severe epidemic in 1941 and 1942. Again in 1949, 40 villages in the district were affected with a mortality of 349. Sustained control measures have resulted in the incidence being reduced since 1952. Since the year 1960, no plague cases have been reported from any place in the district. Hexidol spraying has been done in the rural areas with the result that the bacillus has been exterminated altogether.

Cholera

Cholera has never been totally absent from the district. It has become endemic in all taluks though occasionally it assumes a virulent form. The germs causing this disease multiply by the million. Whenever an outbreak of cholera is reported, all contaminated water sources are blocked for public use and people are advised not to use canal water or water from ponds and wells. All water sources are treated with chemicals to destroy germs. Mass inoculations against cholera are then conducted throughout the area, using approved serum. The Mysore Serum Institute, Bangalore, manufactures this serum. The public health authorities, through the Bureau of Health Education, issue pamphlets in the local language advising people how to guard against the epidemic. When an area is declared as cholera-infected under the Mysore Public Health Act, all *jatras* and gatherings are prohibited for a specified period. In particular localities, eating houses also are closed as a precautionary measure.

In Chitradurga district, cholera was particularly virulent in 1935, 1937, 1942, 1943, 1951 and 1954. In 1951, cholera spread to 81 villages taking a toll of 425 lives, and reappeared in 1954 affecting 90 villages and taking 345 lives.

According to statistics furnished by the Bureau of Epidemiology, cholera ravaged the district again in 1958 when 5 towns and 106 villages were affected, causing a death roll of 290. In that year, 1,68,332 people were inoculated. The district was, however, free from cholera from 1959 to 1961. It appeared again in 1962, and in 1964 it took a virulent form causing death of 292 persons.

The following table indicates the incidence of cholera in the district from 1962 to 1965 :—

Year		*Attacks*	*Deaths*	*Inoculations*
1962	..	40	16	13,384
1963	..	44	5	5,365
1964	..	824	292	2,29,578
1965	..	114	38	1,56,914

Small-pox

Small-pox has not been eliminated in spite of intensive preventive measures. Mass vaccination programmes in all taluks are undertaken in order to stamp out the disease. In spite of the best efforts of the public health staff, the disease occurs now and then, affecting a number of places in the district. In combating the infection, systematic efforts have been made in the district even from the pre-rendition days. In the middle of the preceding century, the work of vaccination was done by private vaccinators. But in 1855, these private vaccinators were replaced by Government vaccinators. Trained vaccinators were transferred from one taluk to another. Each vaccinator was expected to vaccinate 10 persons for every rupee of his salary. The most active and diligent vaccinators were rewarded with cash benefits. To prevent fictitious returns, a system of inspection by the apothecaries was introduced in 1872. These apothecaries worked under the direct orders of the Deputy Commissioner. In 1907, when the new health scheme was introduced, the Deputy Inspectors of Vaccination and vaccinators were put under the District Medical and Sanitary Officers. In places where a Medical Officer or his subordinate was stationed, the vaccination work in the area was entrusted to that officer. He had to maintain a vaccination register showing the number of unprotected children on the basis of the births in the area. Compulsory vaccination was introduced on 16th March 1906 under Regulation No. 1 of 1906.

At present, the District Health and Family Planning Officer, the taluk boards and the various municipalities carry on the work of vaccination with the help of vaccinators and health inspectors. When the District Board was in existence, it had its own health staff. For purposes of public health activities, Chitradurga district was divided into four ranges each under a Senior Health Inspector to whom vaccinators and Junior Health Inspectors were attached. The Senior and Junior Inspectors of the District Board were departmental officials deputed to the Board.

The following table indicates the number of villages affected and mortality figures from 1935 to 1954.

Year			*Number of villages affected.*	*Deaths*
1935	..	..	85	290
1936	..	..	153	508
1937	..	..	65	161
1938	..	..	53	108
1939	..	..	43	81
1940	..	..	52	145
1941	..	..	44	103
1942	..	..	120	323
1943	..	..	160	573
1944	..	..	80	197
1945	..	..	33	07
1946	..	..	65	128
1947	..	..	118	240
1948	..	..	4	16
1949	..	..	11	33
1950	..	..	12	38
1951	..	..	23	58
1952	..	..	8	59
1953	..	..	12	7
1954	..	..	10	51

It is seen from the above table that the years 1936 and 1943 registered the largest number of deaths, while, in 1953, deaths due to small-pox were only seven.

In 1959, 115 attacks and 18 deaths were reported due to small-pox.

The following table indicates the incidence of small-pox in the district from 1960 to 1965 :—

Year		*Attacks*	*Deaths*	*Vaccinations*
1960	..	210	31	23,310
1961	..	218	41	31,402
1962	..	181	35	19,280
1963	..	..	..	..
1964	..	..	..	..
1965	..	100	14	33,340

Guinea worm infection assumed serious proportions in the district in 1928 when 323 villages were affected. As a result of continuous efforts, the disease has been practically brought under control. At present, there is no incidence of this disease in the district. Guinea worm

Public Health Organisation

The district health scheme was first started in 1945 with a whole-time District Health Officer. Prior to the introduction of the new scheme, the District Medical Officer was also looking after the activities of the public health wing. The main functions of the department, apart from vaccination work, commenced in the district as far back as 1928. In that year, a campaign against guinea-worm was started. With the construction of the Vanivilas Sagar Reservoir in Hiriyur taluk in 1906, malaria assumed serious proportions and became endemic in that area and villages began to be depopulated. In 1929, a malaria study station was started in Hiriyur to study the epidemiology and control measures.

Except for major hospitals located in cities and towns, the work connected with the preventive as well as curative aspects of the people's health is looked after by the District Health and Family Planning Officer who is directly responsible to the Director of Health Services. This officer is both a technical and an administrative officer and deals with problems of health, control of epidemics, malaria eradication, maternity and child welfare, vital statistics, sanitation in jatras, environmental hygiene, health education, small-pox eradication and control of curative institutions like the primary health centres, local fund dispensaries and reduced-scale local fund dispensaries. Since 1st June 1960, the District Health Officer is in over-all charge of all the medical institutions in the district at the taluk level. Since 1964, both the health and medical services are under one Director, who is called the Director of Health Services in Mysore. Under a Government Order, both the departments were amalgamated in order to have an effective control on both preventive and curative sides. The Director of Health Services is assisted by a few Joint Directors and Deputy Directors and a number of Assistant Directors.

Health Units

In the district, there are 13 primary health centres of the Government of India type in the following places looking after public health activities in a composite way : Jagalur, Molakalmuru, Parasurampura, Holalkere, Harihar, Mallappanahalli, Kodaganur, Sirigere, Thalak, Yeravalli, Anaji, Pandarahalli and Hosadurga.

Each health unit has a dispensary at the unit headquarters and is under the charge of a Medical Officer of Health. The staff consists of a compounder, one or two junior health inspectors and two or three midwives. Each unit has a service jurisdiction extending to a population of 15 to 20 thousand. Sub-centres are located in selected villages and are manned by junior health inspectors and qualified midwives. The Medical Officer of Health in charge of the primary unit regularly visits these sub-centres for holding clinics and to supervise the health work done by the sub-centre staff. The chief activities of these health units consist in

the main of curative services including clinical work in the sub-centres, prevention and control of communicable diseases, improvement of environmental sanitation, collection of vital statistics, maternity and child health work, school health work, health education and surveys, sanitation of fairs and festivals and supply of drugs and diet supplements to the viable groups of the rural population.

In addition to the 13 health units of the Government of India pattern, nine more primary health units of the Mysore pattern have been started at Maradihalli, Hiriyur, Vanivilaspura, Ranganathapura, Dharmapura, Neralgi, Hadadi, Belladi and Malebennur. The existing Local Fund Dispensaries at these places have been upgraded into Primary Health Units and the staff consists of one Medical Officer of Health, one Health Visitor, four midwives, one Junior Health Inspector, one compounder and menial staff. Each of these primary health units has to serve the whole of the Community Development Block, which has three sub-centres for midwives located at selected villages in the Block area. The functions of these health units are much the same as those of the old Mysore-type rural dispensaries. In addition to the health units, there are two Local Fund Dispensaries at Honnur and Kandagal in Davangere taluk which are placed under the administrative control of the District Health and Family Planning Officer. Each of these dispensaries is manned by an Assistant Medical Officer of Health, midwives and compounders.

Malaria Control

Malaria control by indoor residual spraying with D.D.T. was first launched in the district, according to the National Malaria Control Programme in 1953, and it was switched over to the eradication phase in 1958. There are three sub-units in the district with headquarters at Chitradurga, Davangere and Hiriyur. The sub-units at Chitradurga and Davangere are under the control of the National Malaria Control Unit of Bellary and that of Hiriyur under the control of the Tumkur Unit. The Chitradurga Sub-Unit has jurisdiction over Chitradurga, Challakere and Molakalmuru taluks and the Davangere Unit looks after Davangere, Jagalur, Harihar and Holalkere taluks. The Hiriyur Sub-Unit has jurisdiction over Hiriyur and Hosadurga taluks and Sira taluk of Tumkur district. Each sub-unit is provided with a truck and the Malaria Inspector has to organise residual D.D.T. spraying of all dwelling houses in the villages during the malaria transmission season. Malaria has ceased to be a problem after the introduction of this eradication scheme. The rural population are aware of the beneficial effects of this control programme and are fully co-operating with the eradication staff.

Family Planning

The family planning programme was started in Mysore State in 1957 and further reorganised in 1963, so as to embrace all the districts. During 1965-66, there were 13 rural and 2 urban family

planning centres in Chitradurga district. A rural family planning centre is attached to each of the primary health centres of the Government of India type. The following table indicates the progress achieved under different methods from 1960 to 1965 in the district :—

Year		*Vasectomy operations done.*	*Tubectomy operations done.*	*Intra-uterine contra-ceptive device insertions*
1960	..	..	54	..
1961	..	161	130	..
1962	..	11	78	..
1963	..	496	114	..
1964	..	561	140	..
1965	..	240	518	5,463

Besides these operations and insertions of loops, a large number of contraceptives were also distributed. There is also a Medical Officer of Health (Family Planning) with necessary medical equipment and personnel to carry on the programme.

Under the rural development programme, efforts to provide drinking water wells in all villages are being pursued with vigour. Under the rural water supply scheme, new works to supply water to Bommanahalli, Bhimasamudra, Belaghatta, Haikal, Doddasiddavanahalli, Hirehalli, Bedareddihalli, Rampura, Kondlahalli, Metikurke, Harthikote, Adivala, Pallaghatta, Janakal, Malladihalli, Srirampura, Belagur, Chikkajajur, Bilichodu, Sokke, Gunderi and Kondajji were completed in 1964. Most of the villages in the district have now a drinking water well.

Drainage and Sanitation

Efforts are being made to bring as many towns as possible under the underground drainage system. Schemes have been under way in the City Municipality of Davangere and other Town Municipalities for a comprehensive drainage work. Sustained and persistent propaganda is being done to educate the population on environmental hygiene. Lantern lectures are being conducted during fairs and festivals to instil in the minds of the population the need to observe proper health standards. The Bureau of Health Education attached to the Directorate of Health Services in Mysore is doing sustained propaganda to guard against epidemics

and communicable diseases. The health units have a special responsibility to keep a close watch over insanitary tracts and slums and against contamination of water and food stuffs.

The provisions of the Central Food Adulteration Prevention Act have been brought into force in the municipal areas of Davangere, Chitradurga, Challakere, Harihar, Hiriyur, Jagalur, Holalkere, Hosadurga and Molakalmuru. The municipal analysts in these areas have to test samples and determine the extent of adulteration.

Medical Organisation

Each major hospital is headed by a superior medical officer of the Surgeon's grade (Class I). The District Hospital, Chitradurga, and the Chigateri General Hospital at Davangere are looked after by Surgeons.

The oldest hospital in the district is the District Hospital for men and women located at the district headquarters town at Chitradurga. This is situated on the Chitradurga-Bangalore Road and consists of different wings including a tuberculosis clinic and a maternity section. Improvements to the hospital have been made from time to time so as to make it a well-equipped institution. The hospital has been provided with X-ray facilities, a mobile dispensary, an ambulance van and an operation theatre. The District Hospital has provision for 120 beds including general, maternity and tuberculosis sections. The Surgeon in charge of the Hospital is assisted by two Grade I Assistant Surgeons, four Grade II Assistant Surgeons, six nurses, two compounders and two midwives.

The following details indicate the day-to-day administration of the hospital on the curative side :

The total number of persons treated as in-patients in 1964 was 1,121 while the total number of out-patients treated came to 15,175.

The total number of cases handled in respect of deliveries, complications in pregnancy, child and puerperal diseases in the maternity hospital attached to the district hospital in 1964 was 525. In the dental wing attached to the hospital, 881 cases were treated. During 1964-65, a total of 82 cases came in for ophthalmic attention. In 1964, 131 cases received medical attention in the ear, nose and throat section; 92 persons received treatment for venereal diseases. During the same year, 242 major operations and 1,724 minor operations were performed. In the laboratory attached to the hospital, a total number of 14,752 tests were conducted relating to urology, blood counts, sputum examination and stools in 1964. The total number of radiograms done in the X-ray unit attached to the district hospital was 700 in 1964. In the same year, 3,147 screenings were also done.

Nurses' Training

A training centre for nurses was started in 1962, for 20 stipendiary and 5 non-stipendiary students. The candidates are given training for 18 months and after passing Part 1 examination, they are deputed to the Victoria Hospital, Bangalore, for further training. The students are accommodated in a hostel. A van has been provided for field work. The training centre is housed in the District Hospital, Chitradurga.

Tuberculosis Centre

The tuberculosis centre attached to the Chitradurga district hospital is manned by an Assistant Surgeon who is assisted by a nurse, a compounder and three health visitors. In 1964, 8,234 out-patients received attention.

Chigateri General Hospital

Davangere had only a local fund hospital, a maternity hospital and a tuberculosis hospital prior to 1961. With the rapid development of the city, it was felt that a major hospital should be provided for this industrial area. A general hospital, providing curative facilities for all kinds of ailments was donated by Shri Chigateri Murigappa, a noted industrialist of the city. With his generous help, a beautiful edifice was constructed in the western extension of Davangere and the new hospital which was opened in 1961 was called the Chigateri General Hospital. The old hospital buildings were given away to the Education Department.

The total bed strength of the Chigateri General Hospital in 1964 was 85, including the maternity section. The daily average in-patient strength came to about 120. The out-patient attendance per day was about 500. The General Hospital has a laboratory and an X-ray unit. Eye and ear, nose and throat experts from the Karnatak Medical College Hospital at Hubli visit Davangere once a month and conduct examinations.

The hospital is headed by a Surgeon who is assisted by six Grade I Assistant Surgeons, two Grade II Assistant Surgeons, four Grade III Assistant Surgeons, one lady Assistant Surgeon, 15 nurses, and three compounders.

Murigappaiya Tuberculosis Hospital

The Tuberculosis Hospital at Davangere was donated by Shri H. M. Murigappaiya, a businessman of the city in 1939. The hospital had a bed strength of 32 and on an average 50 persons were treated as out-patients every day. The hospital is managed by an Assistant Surgeon and three nurses.

Municipal Maternity Hospital, Davangere

The Maternity Hospital, run by the Davangere City Municipality, was started on the 20th September 1963, in the old Government hospital building in the heart of the old town. Ever since it was started, a total number of 27,214 out-door and 6,200 in-door patients had received treatment up to 1965. During 1964-65 a sum of Rs. 17,493 was spent towards medicines, contingency and establishment.

Matru Raksha Mandir, Jannayakanahalli.

The Matru Raksha Mandir, Jannayakanahalli in Hiriyur taluk, is run under the auspices of the Kasturba Gandhi National Memorial Trust. This women's hospital was opened on 17th May 1948 in a private building given free of rent by Srimathi Gangamma Timmappa. On 9th August 1951, His Highness Sri Jayachamaraja Wadiyar laid the foundation stone for a new building for this hospital. The building was completed in 1954. The hospital had a bed strength of 8, with an out-patient section, a labour ward and a general ward. More than thirty surrounding villages are being served by this hospital. Till 1965, the hospital had conducted 2,200 maternity cases. The expenditure on this hospital is met by special grants from the Kasturba Fund and by public donations given in kind by villagers.

Local Fund Dispensaries

In addition to the 22 primary health centres of the Central and Mysore type, which are located at all taluk headquarters and important rural centres, the Directorate of Health Services is maintaining 37 local fund dispensaries in selected villages. The average bed strength in each of these dispensaries is four. No diet is being provided in these dispensaries. These medical institutions are managed by Assistant Medical Officers of Health assisted by compounders and midwives. They work directly under the District Health Officer. A list of these dispensaries is attached at the end of the chapter.

Ayurvedic Dispensaries

There were, in 1965, 21 Ayurvedic dispensaries located in various taluks of the district, managed by qualified pandits and subsidised by Taluk Development Boards. These dispensaries also cater for medical needs of a considerable number of people.

The number of registered private medical practitioners in Chitradurga district in the year 1965 was 51.

The total number of doctors in all categories of hospitals in 1965 was 65, who were assisted by 149 nurses and midwives.

There are a few private nursing homes in Chitradurga and Davangere equipped with X-ray units, laboratories and operation theatres doing useful work in alleviating the sufferings of the people.

List of Local Fund Dispensaries functioning in Chitradurga district in 1965 :—

	Place	*Taluk*
1.	Bharamasagara	Chitradurga
2.	Hireguntanur	do
3.	Chikkagondanahalli	do
4.	Belaghatta	do
5.	Turuvanur	do
6.	Doddasiddavanahalli	do
7.	Nayakanahatti	Challakere
8.	Challakere	do
9.	Sanikere	do
10.	Mirsabihalli	do
11.	Jajur	do
12.	Kondlahalli	Molakalmuru
13.	Rampura	do
14.	Siddapura	do
15.	Kondajji	Harihar
16.	Mallanaikanahalli	do
17.	Mallappanahalli	Hosadurga
18.	Janakal	do
19.	Mathodu	do
20.	Sriramapura	do
21.	Belagur	do
22.	Thalya	Holalkere
23.	Horakeredevarapura	do
24.	Gunderi	do
25.	Narayanagondanahalli	do
26.	Ramagiri	do
27.	Malladihalli	do
28.	Chikkajajur	do
29.	Bharamanayakanadurga	do
30.	Mayakonda	Davangere
31.	Honnur	do
32.	Kondagal	do
33.	Sokke	Jagalur
34.	Asagodu	do
35.	Basavankote	do
36.	Bilichodu	do
37.	Bidarekere	do

CHAPTER XVII

OTHER SOCIAL SERVICES

Labour Welfare

FOR efficient administration of labour laws and for successful implementation of labour welfare measures, the State is divided into several areas and Chitradurga district is one of them. The Assistant Commissioner of Labour, Mysore, who takes orders from the Commissioner of Labour, Bangalore, has administrative jurisdiction over Chitradurga district. The Shimoga Divisional Labour Office with one Assistant Commissioner and one Investigator was first started on 13th October 1948 at Bhadravathi. The Chitradurga area was formerly under the jurisdiction of this officer. Subsequently, a separate Labour Officer with headquarters at Davangere was posted. Five subordinate offices with Inspectorates were opened at Davangere, Harihar, Chitradurga, Challakere and Hiriyur to implement labour welfare measures.

Industrial labour welfare is the accepted policy of all modern governments, owing to the increasing tempo of industrial unrest brought about by a new awakening and the right of collective bargaining. The idea of labour welfare began in the State as a humanitarian reform and gradually assumed the character of a sound welfare policy. The origin of labour welfare began with the passing of the Factories Act which regulated the employment of children and women and also provided machinery for protecting the labourers against injury. The statute was amended from time to time, bringing in its wake desirable measures to regulate the hours of work, interval between periods of work, provisions of canteens and other amenities.

All the Central labour laws like the Industrial Disputes Act, 1947, Minimum Wages Act, 1948, the Industrial Employment (Standing Orders) Act, 1946, the Payment of Wages Act, the Indian Trade Unions Act, the Mysore Shops and Establishments Act and the Working Journalists Act have been made applicable to Chitradurga district also. In urban areas like Davangere city, Harihar, Chitradurga, Hiriyur and Challakere towns, the Mysore Shops and Establishments Act is in force which regulates compulsory weekly holidays for shops, hours of work, notice of termination and provides machinery against wrongful dismissal, etc. Constant

vigilance is exercised by Inspectors to see that shop-owners implement the many welfare measures contemplated under the Act. About 5,200 shops and establishments were covered under the Act with 4,200 employees in 1965.

Several big industrial establishments in Davangere have adopted beneficial welfare measures. The Mysore Kirloskar Ltd., Harihar, Sri Shankar Textile Mills Ltd., Davangere, and the Davangere Cotton Mills are providing free medical aid to their employees and are also running canteens, co-operative societies, schools and gratuity fund schemes. The owners of these industrial establishments have also provided housing facilities. The Mysore Housing Board has constructed houses both at Harihar and Davangere for the accommodation of labour.

Provident Fund Scheme

The Employees' Provident Fund Scheme under the Employees' Provident Fund Act, 1952, has been made applicable to all textile mills. The employees pay a fixed percentage of 6¼ or 8 as the case may be and the employers have to contribute an equal sum. All those factories which have been brought under the scheme are known as "covered" factories and Provident Fund Inspectors are appointed under section 13(1) of the Act to supervise the working of the scheme. Every provision has been made to safeguard the interests of subscribers.

The Department of Labour initiated several new schemes in respect of labour welfare. It started a district employment office at Davangere with effect from 1957 to regulate labour employment. A Craftsmen Training Centre was also opened in the industrial area at Davangere.

While the labour welfare scheme has as its primary objective the improvement of working conditions of labour, prohibition has as its objective the amelioration of not only the economic but also the moral condition of the people living both in rural and urban areas.

The Labour Officer in the district is empowered under the Industrial Disputes Act of 1947 to conciliate in disputes arising out of labour troubles. He is obliged to mediate under the law and submit reports of conciliation to his superior. If his conciliation fails and the industrial dispute continues, he then refers the matter to Government through the Labour Commissioner. The Government then refers the dispute to the Tribunal. For the implementation of the Factories Act, the Labour Officer acts as an Additional Inspector. He has to see that the factories, coming under the purview of the Act, follow the statutory obligations. In case of infringement, he brings such cases before a proper court of law. The Payment of Wages Act ensures prompt payment of emoluments. The Labour Officer acts as Inspector under the Minimum Wages Act, Mysore Industrial Establishments

(National and Festival Holidays) Act, Working Journalists Act, and Payment of Bonus Act.

The Government have recently introduced minimum wages for employments in agriculture under the Act of 1948. The Labour Officer, Davangere, has to see that agricultural labour is paid according to the provisions of the Act. The minimum wages for agriculture are in force in all the taluks of the district.

Trade unions

Workers have the obligation to register their organisations under the Indian Trade Unions Act of 1926. Twelve such organisations have been registered for the benefit of labourers in the district.

The following list indicates such registered trade unions in the district as on 31st March 1965.

	Name of the Union	Date of registration	Industry
1	Davangere Cotton Mills Employees' Association.	17th July 1942	Cotton textile
2	Shankar Textile Mills Employees' Association.	5th February 1954	do
3	Ganeshar Mills Workers' Trade Union.	24th April 1956	do
4	Chandrodaya Mills Employees' Union, Davangere.	10th July 1959	do
5	Davangere Cotton Mills Labour Union.	6th January 1964	do
6	Siddeshwara Textile Mills Labour Union, Davangere.	16th January 1964	do
7	Ganeshar Textile Mills Employees' Association, Davangere.	14th August 1964	do
8	Harihar Taluk Textile Employees' Association, Harihar.	22nd October 1964	do
9	Kallappa Spinning Mills Textile Workers' Union, Chitradurga.	30th May 1964	Silk textile
10	Mysore Kirloskar Employees' Association, Harihar.	30th July 1959	Engineering
11	Bank Employees' Association, Davangere.	30th July 1959	Banking
12	Chitradurga Motor Vehicles Workers' Union, Chitradurga.	16th January 1964	Transport

Prohibition

Prohibition was introduced in the State in stages, making a district-wise choice of those areas which were adjacent to dry districts where the social welfare measure was already introduced. Before prohibition actually came into force in Chitradurga district, people were advised to give up drink and workers of several social service bodies like the Civil and Social Progress Association went about the countryside to instil in the minds of the addicts the advantages of abstaining from alcoholic drinks. Temperance reform, the forerunner of prohibition, was hailed as a blessing. In the old Mysore State, there was a persistent agitation to enforce prohibition at least in some districts in the first instance. At each session of the Mysore Representative Assembly, this was pressed home on the authorities. But the Government of the day put forward the plea of loss of revenue. With the dawn of responsible Government in the State in 1947, the problem again became a live issue. The Government finally decided to bring forward the Mysore Prohibition Bill, which was passed into an Act in 1947. Under the provisions of the Act, the Chitradurga district was made dry from 1st July 1948. The total revenue lost by the introduction of prohibition in the district was Rs. 12 lakhs annually. In the year of its introduction, the demand under the excise revenue (1947-48) was Rs. 11,43,524. In the beginning, the provisions of the Mysore Prohibition Act, 1947, were being enforced by the Mysore Excise Department which found it difficult to track down illicit distillation and attendant infringements. There were repeated demands on the floor of the Mysore Legislature to hand over the enforcement to the police. Accordingly, the Government handed over the work of enforcement of prohibition to the Police Department from 1st April 1950.

The district police authorities are in charge of enforcing the prohibition laws in the district. A special police squad has been appointed to put down the drink evil.

Illicit distillation has been kept under check by strict vigilance. The following table gives the number of prohibition cases of all kinds, reported and the number which ended in conviction from 1955 to 1965.

Year	*Reported*	*Convicted*
1955	410	380
1956	1,901	1,707
1957	2,177	2,144
1958	3,812	3,552
1959	5,380	5,129
1960	5,566	5,431
1961	5,389	5,297
1962	3,543	3,431
1963	3,232	2,806
1964	2,582	2,049
1965	3,216	1,862

Illicit distillation is particularly more in the Banjar Thandas, where there are hard addicts. It has been very difficult to wean away these people from the evil habits of drink. In spite of several cases put up against them, illicit distillation is still prevalent among them to a certain extent. It has been noticed by the enforcement staff that a good deal of education and persistent propaganda are necessary to instil in the minds of these people the advantages of prohibition. The authorities have devised several steps, one of them being the opening of neera parlours in the Thandas.

The Mysore Prohibition Act envisages the granting of liquor permits to those addicts who want them on health grounds for purely personal consumption. The granting of such permits is done under liberalised rules and handled by several executive authorities.

Nearly two decades have passed since the district was made completely dry. The enforcement of prohibition laws has, to some extent, improved the moral, material and economic conditions of the one-time drink addicts. It may be said that prohibition has helped to promote peace and tranquillity in labour colonies and many other homes in the district.

Advancement of Backward Classes and Tribes

The total number of persons belonging to the Scheduled Castes in Chitradurga district as per the 1961 Census was 2,03,848. There were 152 persons belonging to the Scheduled Tribes, mostly resident in Chitradurga, Davangere, Holalkere, Hosadurga and Hiriyur taluks. The following table indicates the extent of their population taluk-wise :—

Taluk		*Scheduled Castes*	*Scheduled Tribes*
Challakere	..	32,251	1
Chitradurga	..	34,081	32
Davangere	..	27,570	54
Harihar	..	8,408	..
Hiriyur	..	28,585	8
Holalkere	..	25,055	40
Hosadurga	..	18,483	15
Jagalur	..	17,820	2
Molakalmuru	..	11,595	..
Total	..	2,03,848	152

The following Scheduled Caste groups in the district *viz.*, Adi-Andhra, Adi-Dravida, Adi-Karnataka, Banjara or Lambani, Bhovi, Dakkaliga, Ganti Chores, Handi Jogis, Kepmaries, Korcha, Korma, Machala, Sillekyathas, Mochi and Sudugadu

Siddha, were recognised as Scheduled Castes according to a Presidential Order of 1956. In the compilation of the castes in the Order, various circumstances were taken into consideration. The State administration has recognised its responsibility to survey the needs of the Harijans in different parts of the district and to take steps towards enabling them to come to a minimum level of advancement consistent with the status of the general community.

The executive head of the Department of Social Welfare in Mysore State is the Director of Social Welfare with headquarters at Bangalore. He is charged with the responsibility of implementing the various schemes of the State Government and the schemes sponsored by the Central Government for the welfare of the Backward Classes in the State. In the old Mysore State, the Education Department was in sole charge of the programmes for the educational advancement of the depressed classes, and other schemes for the benefit of these classes, like economic uplift and housing, were implemented by the Commissioner for Depressed Classes assisted by Welfare Officers at the district level and Special Revenue Inspectors at the taluk level. The effective implementation of the various schemes at the district level is now the responsibility of the Deputy Commissioner. He is assisted by a District Social Welfare Officer.

The funds for implementing the various schemes, except the funds for educational schemes, are placed at the disposal of the Deputy Commissioner. The Deputy Commissioner in turn places them at the disposal of the Tahsildars and Block Development Officers. The Tahsildars and Block Development Officers are assisted by Social Welfare Inspectors, who are expected to tour at least for 20 days in a month to contact the people concerned. The Taluk Development Boards also help the advancement of depressed classes at the taluk level.

In order to promote education among the Scheduled Castes and Tribes in the district, a sum of Rs. 68,780 was earmarked during 1964-65. Out of this, Rs. 54,979 were spent on maintaining hostels. During the same year, an amount of Rs. 20,656 was spent on welfare centres for women and Rs. 7,367 for running tailoring classes.

During 1965-66 (upto January 1966) the following amounts were spent on different measures :—

			Rs.
Residential schools	..	..	9,564
Ashram schools	..	..	14,369
Supply of sewing machines	..	..	11,890
Acquisition of land for sites	..	..	11,500
Drinking water wells	..	..	5,436

Award of scholarships	.. ..	1,200
Housing grants	.. ..	2,390

A sum of Rs. 14 lakhs was spent during the III Plan for the amelioration of the Depressed Classes in the district. Some of the important measures and the amounts spent thereon are indicated here :—

Rs. 3,05,168 for the maintenance of hostels.
Rs. 2,57,987 for the welfare centres.
Rs. 37,108 for the residential school at Chitradurga for the Scheduled Castes with a strength of 50 pupils.
Rs. 81,850 for merit scholarships awarded to Scheduled Caste students, studying in primary and high schools.
Rs. 65,200 for land acquisition for house sites to Scheduled Castes.
Rs. 67,873 for drinking water wells for Scheduled Castes.
Rs. 63,013 for the construction of community centre buildings.
Rs. 24,100 for subsidy to poultry farms and sheep-rearing.
Rs. 24,300 for subsidy for purchase of cattle.
Rs. 7,745 for aid to artisans.
Rs. 15,900 for equipment grant to school-going children.
Rs. 34,200 for economic aid to agriculturists.
Rs. 30,210 for the formation of agricultural colonies for the welfare of the Scheduled Castes.
Rs. 79,920 for tailoring centres.

During 1964-65, four Backward Class hostels in Chitradurga district received grants to the extent of Rs. 62,337.

Two hostels for girls are located in Chitradurga and Challakere, where Scheduled Caste girls are given free boarding and lodging.

Hostels for Harijan boys are located at Molakalmuru, Harihar, Hiriyur, Doddasiddavanahalli and Turuvanur.

The Scheduled Castes (Harijan) hostel at Srirampura in the district is an aided hostel providing free boarding and lodging facilities for Harijans.

Since 1950, when the Scheduled Castes and Tribes obtained constitutional safeguards, a total of 49,056 acres of land was assigned to them in the district.

Agricultural Colonies for Harijans

There are in all nine agricultural colonies in Chitradurga district, for providing incentives to Harijan farmers. They are in Ganjalagunte (Hiriyur taluk), Devapura (Hosadurga taluk), Gurusiddapura and Agasanahatti Colony (Jagalur taluk), Bapu

Colony—Kallehadlu—and Jagjivanram Colony (Chitradurga taluk) and Hirekere Kaval, Chikkanahalli and Kachannagi Colony (Challakere taluk).

Women's Welfare Centres

Women's welfare centres-*cum*-nursery schools for Scheduled Castes in the district are located in Chitradurga town, and at Challakere, Jagalur, Harihar, Hullu, Hirehalli, Holalkere, Molakalmuru, Davangere, Hiriyur and Hosadurga. These centres with nursery schools were started with the main object of looking after the children of pre-school age of Scheduled Castes and Tribes by providing care and nourishment when the mothers are away at work. The children are taught to play and sing. The scheme includes teaching of reading and writing also. In the evenings, the Scheduled Caste women gather in these centres for recreation and for learning certain crafts like needle work, cutting and tailoring. Talks are given in these centres on sanitation and care of children. Indoor games are organised as part of the programme of women's welfare. The centres are in charge of a women's welfare organiser and a conductress.

Welfare of Nomadic Tribes

There were two ashram schools for the children of nomadic and semi-nomadic tribes with a strength of 50 each. A sum of Rs. 32,390 was spent during the III Plan period on these schools.

Schemes relating to housing, economic aid to agriculturists, equipment grant to school-going nomadic children and economic aid to craftsmen were implemented during 1964-65 at a cost of Rs. 94,800.

Charitable Endowments

Endowments for the upkeep of religious institutions play a prominent part in the life of the community. Several age-old institutions, which are highly venerated for their sanctity, are classed as Muzrai institutions and rules and regulations have been framed by the authorities for the orderly conduct of these institutions. In recent years, a separate department has been created for looking after endowments and a comprehensive draft bill to regulate charitable endowments is under the consideration of the Government. Sri Harihareshwaraswamy temple at Harihar is a major Muzrai institution. It is situated on the bank of the sacred Tungabhadra river. Large numbers of pilgrims both from within the State and elsewhere visit the temple.

Another important Muzrai institution in the district is the Sri Halaramaswamy temple at Devapura, about five miles from Hosadurga town. There is a sacred pond attached to the temple. Pilgrims come from various parts of the State to receive *prasada* here.

There is another notable endowment in Heggere village, about 18 miles from Hosadurga town, which is a pilgrim centre for Jains.

Sri Channakeshavaswamy temple at Bagur village, about six miles from Hosadurga town, is yet another major Muzrai institution. About the month of March every year, a big fair is held here. Thousands of pilgrims attend the *Rathotsava* which is a particular feature of the place. This endowment dates back to ancient times.

The edicts of the great emperor Ashoka are found very near Siddapura in Molakalmuru taluk. They have been maintained as a major endowment, as they are of historical and archaeological importance. Many people visit this place.

A major Muzrai institution is situated near Devasamudra village in Molakalmuru taluk. It is called Sri Jatangi Rameshwara temple. It is said that Jatayu fell here in attempting to rescue Seetha from the clutches of Ravana. This is a place of pilgrimage and a large number of people visit this place.

Sri Tipperudraswamy temple at Nayakanahatti town in Challakere taluk is another major Muzrai institution. Many devotees visit this place from several parts of the State.

Sri Lakshminarasimhaswamy temple at Horakere-Davarapura near Holalkere town is yet another major Muzrai institution coming under endowments. A car festival is held here about the month of March every year.

The activities of the Endowments Department relate mainly to the upkeep of these ancient temples and to see that fairs and festivals as ordained by the temple customs are held to the satisfaction of the devotees.

Muslim Endowments

The supervision and management of Muslim endowments is the responsibility of the Mysore State Wakf Board, constituted under the provisions of the Central Wakf Act, 1955. There are a few Muslim charitable endowments in the district devoted to serving the needs of the community.

The Deputy Commissioner of the district is in charge of endowments. The Tahsildars safeguard the endowments at the taluk-level.

CHAPTER XVIII

PUBLIC LIFE AND VOLUNTARY SOCIAL SERVICE ORGANISATIONS

Representation in State and Union Legislatures

THE main political parties which played a dominant role in the public life of the district in recent years were the Indian National Congress and the Praja-Socialist Party. The Communist Party of India, the Swatantra Party and the Jan Sangh also contested in the 1962 General Elections in the district, but none of them won any seat. All these political parties have their affiliations with their all-India bodies. In fact, there is no party in the district which is of local origin.

General Elections—1957

The hold of the political parties in an area can be gauged by the results obtained by them in General Elections. In 1957, out of the seven Legislative Assembly constituencies in the district, which returned nine candidates, the Indian National Congress secured five seats, the Praja-Socialist Party three seats and the Socialist Party one. In the Chitradurga double-member constituency, both the seats went to the Congress, while at Hiriyur the Praja-Socialist candidate defeated his Congress rival. The Congress captured a seat in Molakalmuru and also two seats in Challakere constituency. The Praja-Socialists were dominant in Harihar and Davangere, while the Socialist Party candidate was returned in Hosadurga. The Chitradurga Lok Sabha seat was contested by the Indian National Congress and the Praja-Socialists and the result went in favour of the Praja-Socialists. From the above account, it is seen that the Congress and the Praja-Socialists came out well in the 1957 elections. The contest was keen between the Congress candidates and the Praja-Socialists in most of the Assembly constituencies and also in the solitary Lok Sabha constituency.

The delimitation of Parliamentary and Legislative Assembly constituencies for the 1957 elections was finalised by the Delimitation Commission in 1956. After assessing the local feelings, they published the final order on 19th December 1956 in accordance with sub-section (2) of Section 47 of the States Reorganisation Act, 1956, read with Section 6 of the Scheduled Castes and Scheduled Tribes Order (Amendment) of 1956. According

to the final orders, Chitradurga district was divided into seven constituencies with two double-member constituencies at Challakere and Chitradurga. The following statement indicates the names of the constituencies and their extent in 1957:—

Name of the Constituency	*Extent of Constituency*	*Total number of seats*	*Seats reserved for*	
			Scheduled Castes	*Scheduled Tribes*
Molakalmuru	Molakalmuru taluk, Thallak hobli and Mallurahalli circle in Nayakanahatti hobli in Challakere taluk ..	1	..	..
Challakere	Jagalur taluk, Challakere taluk (excluding Thallak hobli and Mallurahalli circle in Nayakanahatti hobli), Turuvanur hobli and Bharamasagara and Yelagodu circles in Bharamasagara hobli in Chitradurga taluk ..	2	1	..
Davangere	Anagodu hobli and Davangere hobli (excluding Hadadi Circle) in Davangere taluk ..	1	..	..
Harihar	Harihar taluk, Mayakonda hobli and Hadadi circle in Davangere hobli in Davangere taluk.	1	..	..
Chitradurga	Chitradurga taluk (excluding Turuvanur hobli and Bharamasagara and Yelagodu circles in Bharamasagara hobli) and Holalkere taluk ..	2	1	..
Hosadurga	Hosadurga taluk ..	1	..	..
Hiriyur	Hiriyur taluk ..	1	..	..
	Total ..	9	2	..

The total number of voters in the district at the time of the 1957 General Elections was 4,79,996. The following table indicates the number of voters in the various Assembly Constituencies.

Constituency			*Total number of voters*
Chitradurga	..	..	1,02,300
Hiriyur	..	..	60,421
Molakalmuru	..	..	50,865
Harihar	..	..	52,905
Hosadurga	..	..	46,411
Challakere	..	..	1,13,172
Davangere	..	..	53,922
	Total	..	4,79,996

In the 1957 General Elections, the percentage of votes polled in each of the constituencies was as follows :—

Constituency	*Percentage of votes polled*
Chitradurga	46.04
Hiriyur	69.92
Molakalmuru	65.09
Harihar	79.11
Hosadurga	57.18
Challakere	57.18
Davangere	62.91

In the General Elections of 1957, the invalid votes polled were the highest in Challakere constituency and the lowest in Hiriyur. In the double-member constituencies of Chitradurga and Challakere, the invalid votes polled were 4,991 and 5,396 respectively, while in Hiriyur it was only 4. According to the figures supplied by the Deputy Commissioner, the invalid votes polled in other Assembly constituencies were as follows : Molakalmuru 13, Harihar 152, Hosadurga 154 and Davangere 28.

There were in all 502 polling booths in the district during the 1957 elections, of which Chitradurga had 104, Hiriyur 63, Molakalmuru 55,Harihar 54, Hosadurga 49, Challakere 124 and Davangere 53.

For the purpose of returning a member to the Lok Sabha, the Delimitation Commission fixed the extent of the Chitradurga constituency comprising Harihar, Davangere, Holalkere, Hosadurga, Hiriyur and Chitradurga taluks, excluding Turuvanur hobli and Bharamasagara and Yelagodu circles in Bharamasagara hobli, and Bhadravati taluk in Shimoga district. The total number of voters in this parliamentary constituency in the 1957 elections was 4,18,838, of whom 59.3 per cent voted. There was a contest between the Congress and the Praja-Socialist candidates and the Praja-Socialist candidate won the contest. There were in all 437 polling booths for this Lok Sabha constituency.

General Elections —1962

After the Delimitation of Parliamentary and Assembly Constituencies Order, 1961, was passed, the double-member constituencies in the State were bifurcated into single-member constituencies.

Thus for the General Elections in 1962, the Assembly constituencies and their extent were as shown below :—

Sl. No.	Name of the Constituency	Extent
1	Molakalmuru ..	Molakalmuru taluk ; Thallak hobli and Mallurahalli circle in Nayakanahatti hobli in Challakere taluk ;
2	Challakere ..	Challakere taluk (excluding Thallak hobli and Mallurahalli circle in Nayakanahatti hobli) ; and Turuvanur Circle in Turuvanur hobli in Chitradurga taluk ;
3	Jagalur (Scheduled Caste) ..	Jagalur taluk ; Bharamasagara and Yelagodu circles in Bharamasagara hobli and Muddapura circle in Turuvanur hobli in Chitradurga taluk ;
4	Davangere ..	Anagodu hobli and Davangere hobli (excluding Hadadi circle) in Davangere taluk ;
5	Harihar ..	Harihar taluk ; Mayakonda hobli and Hadadi circle in Davangere hobli in Davangere taluk ;
6	Chitradurga ..	Chitradurga taluk (excluding Turuvanur hobli and Bharamasagara and Yelagodu circles in Bharamasagara hobli);
7	Holalkere (Scheduled Caste) ..	Holalkere taluk ;
8	Hiriyur ..	Hiriyur taluk and
9	Hosadurga ..	Hosadurga taluk.

The General Elections of 1962 were held in the month of February, and the statistical figures in respect of the elections held in Assembly Constituencies in the district are given below :—

Sl. No.	Name of Assembly Constituency	Total No. of electors in the constituency	No. of electors who voted.	Percentage	No. of contesting candidates	Party affiliation of the returned candidates	No. of polling Stations
1	Molakalmuru ..	58,104	41,282	71.05	3	Congress	66
2	Challakere ..	65,477	42,033	65.16	4	P.S.P.	75
3	Jagalur (Scheduled Caste)	57,899	31,468	54.35	6	Congress	66
4	Davangere ..	67,956	44,775	65.80	4	Congress	73
5	Harihar ..	63,401	46,400	73.18	3	Congress	69
6	Chitradurga ..	59,453	36,948	62.15	2	Congress	65
7	Holalkere (Scheduled Caste)	54,292	29,925	53.26	4	Congress	57
8	Hiriyur ..	72,361	53,023	73.28	5	Congress	82
9	Hosadurga ..	54,048	39,803	73.64	2	P.S.P.	61

The highest percentage of votes polled was in Hosadurga (73.64 per cent), whereas the lowest was in Holalkere (53.26 per cent). In the two Assembly Constituencies, *i.e.*, Chitradurga and Hosadurga, there were straight contests between the Congress and the Praja-Socialists. In Chitradurga, the Congress candidate and in Hosadurga, the Praja-Socialist candidate were elected.

The parties which contested the seats for the Assembly in the district were (1) Congress, (2) Praja-Socialist Party, (3) Jan Sangh, (4) Communist Party of India and (5) Swatantra Party. There were a number of independent candidates also. The Praja-Socialists contested in eight Assembly Constituencies, *i.e.*, except in Holalkere, whereas the Congress contested for all the nine seats. Out of the nine seats, Congress won seven and the Praja-Socialists two.

Out of the nine Assembly Constituencies, the highest number of rejected votes was in respect of Jagalur Constituency, (i.e., 3,458), the percentage being 10.99, whereas the lowest was in Hosadurga Constituency, (*i.e.*, 1,512), the percentage being 3.83.

Parliamentary Constituency

After the bifurcation of the double member constituencies into single-member constituencies, the position changed. There was one Parliamentary Constituency called the Chitradurga Parliamentary Constituency to which (1) Davangere, (2) Harihar, (3) Chitradurga, (4) Holalkere, (5) Hiriyur, (6) Hosadurga, (all in Chitradurga district), (7) Channagiri and (8) Bhadravathi (in Shimoga district) Assembly Constituencies were allotted. The other three Assembly Constituencies in the district, *viz.*, (1) Molakalmuru (2) Challakere and (3) Jagalur were included in the Bellary Parliamentary Constituency.

As regards the election from the Chitradurga Parliamentary Constituency, there were 5,02,170 electors, out of whom 3,30,704 electors actually voted, the percentage of voting being 65.85. There were three candidates, one Congress, one Praja-Socialist and one Independent. The Congress candidate won in the election.

As in 1957, the elections to the State Legislative Assembly and the Lok Sabha were simultaneously held. Thus, the polling stations set up were used for both the elections.

No bye-elections were held from any of the nine Assembly Constituencies in the district after the General Elections of 1962.

No election petitions either in respect of elections to the State Legislative Assembly or the Lok Sabha were filed after the elections of 1962 in the district.

The growth of journalism in the district has been rather tardy. In the entire district, Davangere and Chitradurga are the only two places, where some papers are published. According to the annual report of the Registrar of Newspapers for India for 1964, there was only one Kannada daily newspaper published in Davangere, called " Khiladi ". This paper gave its readers a summary of local news and comments. There was also a Kannada weekly called" Dashavatara ". Yet another Kannada weekly called " Satyajyothi " was being published from Chitradurga town. There were only two monthlies in the whole district—" Jagriti " from Davangere and " Krista Agamanaduta " from Chitradurga. **Newspapers and periodicals**

Newspapers published in Bombay, Bangalore and Hubli have a good reading public. The Kannada papers, which have a wide circulation in the district are Prajavani, Tainadu, Samyukta Karnatak, Vishwavani, Vishala-Karnatak, Janavani, Prapancha, Karmaveera, Prajamata, Janapragati, Sudha and Kasturi. Among the English dailies, the Deccan Herald, Hindu, Indian Express and Times of India are popular. The periodicals which have a good circulation are the Illustrated Weekly, Blitz, Bhavan's Journal and Mysindia. The film magazines coming from Bombay and other places have also a good circulation.

In the old days, the Hubli newspapers reached Davangere earlier than Bangalore papers and so had a larger circulation. Later on, all the big daily newspapers in Bangalore began to send their morning editions in motor vans to reach Chitradurga and Davangere much earlier than before. The vans which start from Bangalore in the early morning reach Chitradurga by 8 or 8-30 A.M. and Davangere an hour later. This method of quick transport was helpful to the readers and increased the circulation of those newspapers.

VOLUNTARY SOCIAL SERVICE ORGANISATIONS

With the dawn of India's independence, there has been an increasing urge to care for the under-privileged. Many voluntary organisations in the district have been rendering good service to the community in a variety of ways. These social service organisations can be broadly classified under three categories, the orphanages, welfare institutions and the institutions for community development like the Mahila Samajas and youth organisations. The following are some of the important social service organisations in the district. Although it has not been possible to include every institution functioning in the district, an attempt has been made to include as many of them as possible, particulars of whose working could be collected.

Sri Taralabalu Jagadguru Orphanage, Sirigere, was started in 1946 by His Holiness Sri Taralabalu Jagadguru Sri Shivakumara Shivacharya Mahaswamigalu of the Sirigere Matha for upliftment **Taralabalu Jagadguru Orphanage**

of orphans and to inculcate in them ideas about dignity of labour and value of education and to build up their character. The governing council or the managing committee consists of six members with His Holiness as the Chairman. A part of the revenue of the Sirigere Matha is spent for the maintenance of the Orphanage. There were about 175 inmates in the institution in 1965, who were provided with free food, clothing and lodging. The institution is open to all castes and communities. The inmates are obliged to go out during vacations to assist voluntary organisations doing social work.

Ashakta Poshaka Sangha, Davangere

The Ashakta Poshaka Sangha, Davangere, was started in 1943 and was registered under the Mysore Societies Act III of 1904 and V of 1939. The public-spirited citizens of Davangere felt the need for an orphanage and established this institution. This orphanage is managed by a local committee with a president, vice-president and 20 members. The finances for running the institution are derived from Government grant, municipal grant, public subscriptions, rent from the buildings and the interest from the Government endowment deposit. There were about 20 inmates in 1965 but the number varies from year to year.

Anatha Sevashrama, Malladihalli

The biggest of the voluntary social service organisations in the district is in Malladihalli which is not far from the Holalkere Road railway station on the Bangalore—Poona metre gauge line. This Sevashrama was started in 1943 by Sri Raghavendra Swamiji, a *brahmachari*, who has dedicated his life to the service of the people. He received his training in yoga, physical culture and medicine under revered yogis and was also associated with the freedom struggle. In 1943, he established this centre of constructive activities at Malladihalli, a village in the interior of the district. The aim of this institution is all-round development of the rural population. The Sevashrama is managed by a board of trustees with a president and a secretary and is financed by public donations. The chief activities in the Malladihalli Sevashrama are the running of a residential multi-purpose higher secondary school, a teachers' training college, a sishu vihara, a free Ayurvedic medical centre, organising of camps to train boys in physical culture and conducting of courses in yoga for the benefit of the community. There were 25 teachers and 15 other staff members in the Sevasharma in 1965. Printing, sewing and agricultural practices are some of the vocations taught in the institution. The institution is also running a printing press and a hostel. The Sevashrama is maintaining a gymnasium, a tapovana and a yoga mandir. A *Gokula* is also being run with 50 cows and a breeding bull. It is a unique institution in the State and is working on a secular basis.

Akkamahadevi Seva Samaja, Chitradurga

The Akkamahadevi Seva Samaja, Chitradurga, was started in 1944 to advance the social, religious and economic interests of women in the district. It had a membership of 65 in 1965. The State Department of Industries and Commerce had given a grant

to purchase six sewing machines. Forty girl-pupils were receiving instruction in tailoring. In the year 1964-65, 30 pupils were trained and occupations were secured for them. The Seva Samaja offers facilities not only for its members but also for others without caste distinction. Hindi classes for Prathama, Madhyama and Rashtrabhasha examinations were also being conducted. Recently, a music class has been started. A good library is being run for the use of the members. The affairs of this welfare institution are being managed by an elected committee with a president, a vice-president and an honorary secretary. The Samaja had provided facilities for 80 orphan children also to pursue their education. The institution had received grants totalling Rs. 27,900 from the Central Welfare Advisory Board upto 1964-65.

Child Welfare Committee, Naraganahalli

Started in September 1956, the Child Welfare Committee, Naraganahalli, in Davangere taluk, is doing good service in the interest of child welfare by setting up shishu vihars and implementing other cognate schemes. It is the policy of this welfare organisation to inculcate in the minds of the children, the paramount need to develop a spirit of sacrifice and to be brave in facing odds. Through a proper study of child psychology, various institutional schemes were initiated to remove illiteracy and ill-health. The welfare committee is elected from amongst its members and there are the president, a vice-president and a secretary to look after the day-to-day administration of the organisation. The finances for the institution are secured by membership subscription, public donations and donations received from other social service organisations. The welfare institution was taking care of 150 children belonging to several communities. The membership of the institution was about 100 in 1965. The organisation has set up a library containing attractive literature mainly for improving the knowledge of children and a separate childrens' journal was also being published periodically. Dramas, specially suited to children, are put on the stage now and then. Debates in which only children are allowed to participate are held periodically. Ample scope is created for children to write stories and poetry and to give recitations and the like. A special feature of this welfare organisation is the promotion of agricultural and horticultural pursuits amongst children. During the holidays, the inmates are taken out for short sight-seeing excursions. The United Nations International Children's Emergency Fund (UNICEF) as also the Indian Children's Welfare Fund were pleased to extend generous grants to this organisation. The Central Social Welfare Board, the Indian Red Cross Society, the International Youth Library in Germany and the National Extension Service Blocks gave help as and when necessary. The Child Welfare Committee was also conducting scout and girl guide activities and these had become popular.

Karnataka Sangha, Mayakonda

The Karnataka Sangha, Mayakonda, was started on April 14, 1942 by public-spirited men, officials and students of Mayakonda with the object of fostering a spirit of love for Kannada literature

and to conduct various literary and cultural activities in the area. The Sangha is registered and it has a managing committee consisting of 15 members elected by the general body. The finances of this institution were secured by membership fees, voluntary contributions made by philanthropic men, grants from local boards and help from Government. The number of members of the Sangha varied from year to year. As on 1st January 1965, there were 75 members on the rolls. A good library of about 1,000 volumes, open to members, was being run. The Sangha is affiliated to the Kannada Sahitya Parishat, Bangalore. The Mysore University was arranging extension lectures through the Sangha. The members tour the villages for cultural propaganda and meetings are arranged under the auspices of several panchayats. This institution was running a nursery school, a ladies section, music and Kavya Vachana classes.

Mahila Samaja, Malebennur

The Mahila Samaja, Malebennur in Harihar taluk, was started on 27th August, 1956 with a view to training women in the rural areas to learn some occupations and to use their leisure hours profitably. The Samaja had no other revenue except the membership fees. A governing body looks after the management with a president, a secretary and managing committee members. There were 35 members in 1965. The Samaja was also running an adult literacy class. For the benefit of members, classes in knitting, embroidery and tailoring were being conducted. The block area officials visit the Samaja periodically and guide its welfare activities.

Kasturba Centre, Kodaganur

The Kasturba Centre, Kodaganur in Davangere taluk, was started in 1947 under the auspices of the All-India Kasturba National Memorial Fund. The aim of this welfare organisation is to help in the upliftment of women and children living in rural areas. Originally, the centre was located in a rented building. Due to the generous financial help extended by the Bharat Sevak Samaj, the Centre has now a separate building of its own built at a cost of Rs. 6,000. The Centre is running a *Balawadi*. Children come to the centre after finishing their school hours and participate in cultural and physical culture activities and the like. Women who desire to learn some avocations are trained in spinning, weaving, embroidery and other useful handicrafts. In addition to these welfare activities, the centre was running a separate midwifery class; after training, the midwives go to villages for doing ante-natal work. The rural women in the surrounding villages have also much benefited by the helpful activities conducted by this centre.

Mahila Samaja, Kondajji

The Mahila Samaja, Kondajji in Harihar taluk, was started on 18th April 1956, with the help of the National Extension Service Block, Harihar. The membership of the Samaja was only 15 at the time of inauguration. It had risen to 45 in 1965. There are

an elected president and a secretary to look after the day-to-day affairs of the institution. Materials for embroidery and sewing are being supplied by the Extension Block. The Lady Social Education Organiser frequently visits the Samaja to give talks on child welfare, personal and environmental hygiene and such other subjects. Tailoring and embroidery classes were being run for ladies. Demonstrations are conducted in soap-making and lice control. As part of the cultural programme, *janapada geethas* were being taught.

Vijayakalavidaru, Hiriyur

'Vijayakalavidaru', Hiriyur, was started in 1945 with the object of promoting literary and cultural activities in the area. The affairs of the institution are managed by an executive committee consisting of nine members. Since the inception of the organisation, it has conducted a progressive writers' conference, a literary conference, Kannada *Sahityotsava* and dramatic competitions. This association has also staged benefit dramas in aid of construction of school and hospital buildings in the area.

Silver Jubilee Orphanage, Chitradurga

The Silver Jubilee Orphanage, Chitradurga, was started in 1928. In 1965, the orphanage had accommodation for 37 boys. Due to insufficiency of funds more admissions were not possible. Orphan boys who are unable to pursue their studies are being housed here and the boys so admitted are given free boarding, lodging and educational facilities, upto the S.S.L.C. standard. The Central Social Welfare Board is paying a contribution to this institution. Upto 1965, the orphanage had helped 420 boys to receive their education. The Deputy Commissioner of the district is looking after the institution with the help of a secretary. The orphanage is managed by a warden who does his work honorarily. The finances of this orphanage are obtained through grants and public donations. The normal income from all sources was about Rs. 4,000 annually. The municipalities, taluk boards and various co-operative societies were helping the orphanage.

Mahila Seva Samaja, Chitradurga

The Mahila Seva Samaja, Chitradurga, was started on 5th April 1928. It was registered on 5th October 1932, under the Mysore Societies Registration Act. The Samaja has patrons, life members, ordinary members and concessional members. The aims and objects of this welfare organisation are to establish nursery schools for the pre-primary children, to train adult women-folk in sewing, knitting, cutting and embroidery, to propagate literary interest and to serve the community in general through social welfare activities. Other handicrafts like spinning, weaving, mat-weaving, agarbathi-manufacture and carpet-making are also taught. The Mahila Seva Samaja members also attend to distress relief work, when necessary. The Samaja is housed in its own building built at a cost of Rs. 50,000. There were about 125 members on the rolls in 1965. The Samaja has several sections for Ambar charka, textiles, weaving, agarbathi-making,

woollen-carding and music. The Central Social Welfare Board has given a generous grant of Rs. 22,500 for the equipment of the industrial sections attached to the Samaja. In addition to the activities mentioned above, the Mahila Seva Samaja is maintaining a library of its own with a reading room. In the year 1956, the Silver Jubilee of the Samaja was celebrated. Liberal grants were given by the Town Municipal Council, the former District Board and the State Education Department. Her Highness the Maharani of Mysore was the patron-in-chief of the institution.

Social Welfare Centre, Maradihalli

The Social Welfare Centre, Maradihalli in Chitradurga taluk, was started in 1955 with the help of the Mysore State Social Welfare Board. The object of the centre is to mould the character of children and to impart a spirit of social service in the minds of rural women. There is a local committee consisting of officials and non-officials to carry on welfare activities in the taluk. The finances for this centre are raised from public contributions and also a generous grant from the Central Social Welfare Board. Women are given intensive training in tailoring, mat-weaving, foot-rug making, flower-making, charkha spinning and toy-making. A nursery school is being run by the Centre. A small library is also attached to the centre from where books are being lent to the rural population. Once a week, bhajans are conducted. Folk songs and classical music are regularly taught.

CHAPTER XIX

PLACES OF INTEREST

Abbinahole ABBINAHOLE (Hiriyur taluk).—The Ranganatha temple here has a round stone (*udbhava-murthi* or *swayambhu*) for the object of worship. In front of it is an inscription, dated 1604, which is of some interest as it refers to the establishment of a claim to the office of shanbhogue through success in an ordeal of dipping the hand in boiling ghee in the presence of a large number of people. The place is also historically known, because the Nolamba king, Aiyapa, erected a *virgal* here in 923 A.D.

Aimangala *Aimangala* (Hiriyur taluk) is a roadside village about 13 miles from Chitradurga on the Hiriyur road. The popular explanation of the name of the village is that the fort was built for a Veerashaiva *ayya* (priest) by Hire-Madakeri Nayaka of Chitradurga; but this is untenable since the name is found in an inscription of 975 A.D. in the form of 'Ayyapamangala'. Local tradition has it that a certain Dasayya wanted the villagers to start building the fort when he blew his conch and struck the gong so that the fort would be invincible. While the villagers were impatiently waiting, it is said, some other Dasayya gave the signal at a wrong moment and the work was started. The story concludes that owing to this mistake the fort had to face a fate of alternate prosperity and decay.

The antiquities of the place, including the fort, mostly belong to the 17th and 18th centuries A.D. The fort is a large oblong structure with straight sides, with a high platform in each corner and numerous square bastions. It has three ruined gates, one to the north, one to the east and one to the west, the south wall having been recently breached to provide for a cart track. The walls are massive and high and there are ruins of a moat visible in many places. Beyond the south gate is a tank. In the wall near the inner corner of this gate were found in 1927 a large number of pot-stone balls.

The most important monument in the village is the temple of Virabhadra which stands to the north of the main road beyond the Vaishnava temple and the ruins of what appears to have been

a palace. The image of the deity which was described as finely carved is said to have been destroyed some years ago. The *garbhagriha* and the *sukanasi* are comparatively plain, while near the *sukanasi* doorway are several granite slabs with relief sculptures suggestive of the Nayaka period. There are indications of other structures like a *prakara* and a pond to the west of the temple.

There is a Khadi centre at Aimangala, run by the State Khadi and Village Industries Board. The Khadi produced in this centre has become popular.

Anagod *Anagod* (Davangere taluk) is a village about 10 miles to the south-east of Davangere. The Siddheshvara temple, by the side of the tank in the north, is an ancient structure, similar in style to the 11th century *trikutachala* type, but with many later extensions on all sides. The original structure had three cells with open vestibules in front leading to a common *navaranga*. The central ceiling of the *navaranga* is somewhat deep and in form a square placed on a square with a lotus carving in the centre. The *navaranga* has in it the sculptures of *Vishnu, Surya-Narayana, Mahishasuramardini, Nandi* and *Virabhadra*. All the extensions seem to belong to about the 17th century, the tower also belonging to the same age.

Anaji *Anaji* (Davangere taluk) is a village about 12 miles east of Davangere on the Jagalur road. In a field near the village was found a well-known early Kadamba inscription belonging to about 450 A.D. Close to the village is a hill with relics of a fort-wall of mud. At the top of the hill is a *mantapa* reconstructed in the Paleyagar period, with old pillars of the Yadava times. There are a number of shrines in the back *ankana*, one of them containing the image of *Yoga-narasimha*. A view of Uchchangi-durga can be had from the top of this hill.

Anekonda *Anekonda* (Davangere taluk) is a village about two miles from Davangere, containing a small but beautiful Ishvara temple built in Hoysala style, which was restored with mud walls and plastered in about 1912. The temple originally had three cells, though there are only two at present. The north cell is now empty. The main cell has a *sukanasi* and a *navaranga*. The well-executed doorway of the *garbhagriha* has a figure of *Gajalakshmi* on the lintel. At the sides of the *sukanasi* doorway are two fine niches with female chauri-bearers on either side, the right one containing a figure of *Saraswati* and the left that of *Mahishasura-mardini*. The ceilings are deep and show good work. Eight of them have on the circular undersurface figures of *Ashta-dikpalakas*, while the central one has a figure of Shiva as *Gajasuramardana* flanked by Brahma and Vishnu. Opposite the temple is a fine *Nandi* in a shrine. The temple appears to have been built in the first half of the 12th century. To the south-west of the temple is a shrine

containing a seated female figure, with four mutilated hands, which the villagers call *Gangambika*. On an elevation nearby is a temple of a four-handed goddess, *Maradamma*.

Though a small village now, Anekonda appears to have been a place of some importance at one time. Till recently, small gold coins used to be picked up there after heavy rains. One of these, which has been examined, has been assigned to the Pandyas of Uchchangi, a place about six miles from Davangere.

Asagodu

Asagodu (Jagalur taluk).—Now a small and insignificant village, Asagodu was one of the most ancient centres of learning in the district in the old days. Its antiquity is traced to the Buddhist period and it is said that '*Asagodu*' is an equivalent of '*Ashoka-pattana*'. The antiquity of the place is indicated by the existence of a number of megalithic tombs in the neighbourhood. There are a number of inscriptions in the local temple of *Swayambhu Kali-devaswami,* right from the later Chalukya period. The place is just four miles from the ancient capital of Uchchangidurga.

Bada

Bada (Davangere taluk).—According to the inscriptions found at this place, Bada was an ancient *agrahara* town, prosperous during the 11th and the 12th centuries A.D. To the east of the village, at a distance of about hundred yards, there are the ruins of a *trikutachala* type temple, called *Kodi Basavannana Gudi.* Actually, the temple consisted originally of three cells dedicated to the gods *Allaleshvara, Narayana* and *Swayambhu*. The open vestibules had a common *navaranga* whose doorway is on the south. The material used for the structural work is granite, while that used for the sculpture is potstone. Almost all the sculptures of this temple have now been removed to the Hanumantaraya temple in the village. Among these sculptures, there are two beautiful specimens, one of Garuda and the other of Surya-Narayana.

Bagur.—Please see under Charitable Endowments in Chapter XVII.

Bistuvalli

Bistuvalli (Jagalur taluk).—There is a fine pond called *Dalavayi-honda* about two miles west of this place, built by Muddanna, the *Dalavayi* or general of Hire-Madakeri Nayaka at the close of the 17th century A.D. It is a symmetrical structure, about 30 yards square, with flights of steps on all the four sides. There is some ornamental work in the middle of the parapet all-round. There is a temple dedicated to god Ranganatha on the neighbouring hill called *Konachagal-gudda,* wherein the god is in the form of a round stone marked with a *namam.* In an adjoining cave is an image of *Lak-kamma* or *Tolasamma.* A festival is observed annually in the month of *Chaitra* (about April), which attracts thousands of people. At the foot of the hill is a rough stone to the right, known as *Chelappa,* to which offerings of scorpions made of silver, jaggery, etc., are

made in the belief that it would help to escape from scorpion bites. Higher up stands a boulder called Talebolugudda against which those, who have undergone torture in fulfilment of vows, knock their heads thrice.

Bharmagiri *Bharmagiri* (Hiriyur taluk).—So named after the Paleyagar Bharmanna Nayaka, it is situated on a low fortified hill. It has a shrine in which the *utsavavigraha* or procession image of *Kaniveya Maramma*, the goddess after whom Marikanive is named, is kept. The image consists of a wooden box decorated with hands and other limbs and it is taken out in a car once a year.

Brahmagiri *Brahmagiri*, in Molakalmuru taluk, is the site of Ishila, one of the provincial capitals of Ashoka's empire. The archaeological discoveries of Brahmagiri have been described in detail in the section on Archaeology in Chapter II.

Challakere *Challakere*, which is the headquarters of the taluk of the same name, is situated on the Bangalore-Bellary road, 18 miles east-north-east of Chitradurga with which it is connected by a road It is a town municipality and a commercial centre. A weekly fair is held on every Sunday and nearly five thousand people collect from the different parts of the district. The Challakere weekly shandy is said to be one of the biggest in the district, having brisk trade in groundnut, cotton and paddy. It has also a Regulated Market. There is also a temple of the local goddess Challakere-amma. The Municipal High School at this place is one of the oldest institutions in the district.

Chandravalli *Chandravalli* almost forms part of Chitradurga town. The ancient site of Chandravalli is situated at the north-west foot of the Chitradurga hill. It appears to extend over a considerable area from the Hanumanta temple in the north to the *Anklimatha* in the south. A large portion of it is now covered with cultivated fields. The whole area was strewn with bricks and pieces of pottery. The archaeological discoveries made in the site, which take us to the Satavahana period and further back, have been dealt with in detail in the section on Archaeology in Chapter II.

Chikkajajur *Chikkajajur* (Holalkere taluk) is a small town on the Poona-Bangalore line of the Southern Railway and is the junction for the Chikkajajur-Chitradurga line. This line, covering a distance of 21 miles, was opened for traffic on the 5th January 1921. About 8 miles north-east of Chikkajajur is Bhimasamudra tank constructed at the time of Bharamappa Nayaka a ruler in the Paleyagar period. This tank was also called Holathihalu Kere in the old days. The bund of the tank is about 400 feet in length.

Chitradurga *Chitradurga*, the headquarters of the district, is 24 miles from the Holalkere railway station and on the Bangalore-Harihar road,

about 126 miles north-west of Bangalore. It is connected with the Poona-Bangalore railway line with a branch line from Chikkajajur. It is a town municipality.

The present name of the place, Chitradurga, meaning 'picture-fort', appears to be a comparatively modern one, the earlier names which are met with in the inscriptions being Bemmattanakallu or Bemmattanuru, Sulgal, Perumalepura and Chitrakal-durga. In addition to these names found in the inscriptions, the place is said to have had the following names also: Hidimbapattana, during the days of the Mahabharata; Mallarayanadurga, given by one Vira Mallanna Wodeyar in the 15th century; Farrakabad, given by Tipu Sultan but not retained by the place after him; and Chin-Muladri, given to the place, perhaps with some religious significance, and still used by the Swamis of the Murugharajendra and Kudali Sringeri Mathas. It is believed that the present name has been derived from Chitrakal-durga, meaning spotted or picturesque castle or from Chatrakal or umbrella-rock, there being to the south-west a striking lofty hill of this form. But the name Chitrakal itself appears to have been derived from the earlier name Sulgal (or perhaps Suligal), 'Suli' meaning a figure, movement, whorl, outline, etc., in Kannada.

The history of the place has been related in connection with that of the district in Chapter II. There are a number of inscriptions at the hill, belonging to the Chalukyas, Hoysalas and the Vijayanagara kings. According to legend, the giant Hidimbasura, whom Bhima, one of the Pandava brothers killed, lived here.

The old town, which is surrounded with a line of fortifications and includes an inner fort, is built at the north-eastern base of a dense cluster of rocky hills, very extensively fortified. The fort is called *Yelusuttina Kote* or Fort of Seven Rounds (of walls), of which three are on the ground and four on the hill. The outer most wall has four gateways: *Rangayyana bagilu* or *Sira darvaza* in the east, *Sante* or *Siddayyana bagilu* or *Fateh darvaza* in the north, *Sihiniru hondada bagilu* or *Uchchangi bagilu* in the west and the *Lalkote bagilu* in the south. The *Rangayyana bagilu*, with its two rooms, houses the archaeological museum, which exhibits articles and photographs of local archaeological and historical interest. To the south-west is the umbrella-rock, a hill held sacred by both Hindus and Muslims. There is another hill south of the town, with a shrine at the summit dedicated to Obala-devi and held specially sacred by the Bedas.

The extensive fortifications, batteries and works of masonry forming the mel-durga or upper fort, which contains 14 temples, presents many points of interest. Proceeding up the hill from the east, are five gateways leading through stone walls. The first gateway appears to be of the Vijayanagara period, containing sculp-

tures of *Gandabherunda*, serpent, *Basavanna*, *Ganesha*, etc. The second and the third are not so remarkable, while the fourth again is a very strong structure. The fifth gateway leads us to the area containing important buildings and temples. The walls are built of huge stone blocks, often three feet in length, breadth and height, neatly cut and placed on one another, without the use of any cementing material. The height of the walls varies from 15 feet to 40 feet according to local requirements. At some places, the height of the inner walls has been raised by brick walls of four to six feet in height. The walls are provided with innumerable bastions of various sizes and shapes—round, square, hexagonal and octagonal. The three outer lines of walls, and others at places, are surrounded by deep and broad moats which, when in use, were always filled with water and made dangerous of approach by growing various aquatic plants and grasses and by being invested with deadly creatures like snakes and crocodiles. In all, the fort is said to have had 19 gateways, 38 postern-gates, 35 secret entrances and 4 'invisible' entrances. Many of these have gone out of existence now. The doors were made of strong and thick wooden beams fastened with iron plates. The doors of the main gateways were, in addition, bristling with iron spikes and pegs to ward off elephants. The remains of the fort and the place of the Paleyagars, which were of mud, are still to be seen. The formidable stone fortress, as it now is, was erected by Haidar and Tipu, by whom also were constructed the immense granaries and pits for storing oil and ghee.

On the hill, the main temples are of *Sampige Siddheshvara*, *Hidimbeshvara*, *Ekanathamma*, *Phalguneshvara*, *Gopalakrishna*, *Anjaneya*, *Subbaraya* and *Basava*. A big piece of bone has been kept in the *Hidimbeshvara* temple and is shown as the tooth of the demon *Hidimba*, and a cylinder of iron plates, six feet high and ten feet in circumference, as the *bheri* or kettle-drum of Bhima. A figure of Hidimba is sculptured on the *Vimana*. In the Siddheshwara temple also is kept a piece of bone much larger than that kept in the *Hidimbeshvara* temple, which also is shown as the tooth of *Hidimba*. One of the interesting structures on this hill is a circular well built of masonry, about 8 feet deep and 21 feet in diameter, on the edge of which, in the four cardinal points, are fixed, on two stone beams, huge mill-stones 5 feet 10 inches in diameter, the lower stone being 1 foot 10 inches thick and the upper 10 inches. The upper stones have round the rim 38 square holes, each 2¼ inches long and 3¾ inches deep. There are two flights of steps leading down into the well. These mill-stones are supposed to have been used for grinding gun-powder at the time of Haidar and Tipu, and this supposition is confirmed by the discovery of quantities of charcoal powder at the sides of the mill-stones, some years ago when the structure was unearthed. Probably elephants were used for working the mill-stones. Two of the upper stones have now been removed to the park where they have been fixed like round tables.

In the *Mahal* in the inner fort, the ceiling of the inner hall has been pulled down, only the plain lofty wooden pillars now remaining. The upper storey contains a few plain-looking rooms. In the compound there is a huge stone trough 10 feet 6 inches long, 4 feet 6 inches broad and 4 feet 10 inches deep, chiselled out of hard granite and well-polished. It is said that this trough was for the use of elephants during Tipu's time.

The remarkable arrangement made by the rulers of Chitradurga for collecting all the rain water to the fullest possible extent is worth mentioning. The rain water that poured on the Jogimatti hills was collected in a tank called *Doddannana Kere*, which, when, filled, let the water to other tanks below it, called *Timmannanayakana Kere* and *Sanna Kere*, which in turn, after themselves being filled, allowed the water to two other reservoirs, called *Dabadabe* and *Vaddu*, by a similar process. After filling all these tanks, the water used to flow to the moats round the fort-walls. Similarly, the rain water, falling on the *Mel-durga* or upper fort, filled a series of reservoirs one below the other, called the *Gopalakrishnadevara Honda, Akkatangiyara Honda, Sihiniru Honda* and finally, by a secret underground channel, the *Santhe Honda*. It is due to this wonderful arrangement that the fort, never in its long history, suffered from water scarcity.

No account of the Chitradurga hill-fort would be complete without the mention of *Vanake Kindi*, a secret entrance, not because of any technical interest attached to it but because of its association with a heroic tale of a Beda woman, Obavva, and connected with the famous attack of Haidar Ali on Chitradurga. Haidar's forces were unable to effect an entry into the fort, in spite of a long siege. Despair was spreading in his camp, when, one Muslim soldier observed a woman carrying curds to the fortress, passing through a small crevice in the wall. One of the secret entrances was thus found out and through this, Haidar's army decided to march in single file into the fort. It was a very narrow crevice, hardly admitting a human being in a kneeling position. Nearby this passage was a fresh-water pond inside the fort-wall half-way up the hill and at the time the soldiers started entering into the fort through the hole, Obavva, wife of a bugler, had come to the pond for fetching water. She heard some low noises through the passage. It was getting dark, and, suspecting some danger she hid herself by the side of the entrance. The bold and brave woman that she was, she kept herself ready for the occasion with a *vanake* (pestle) in her hand. In a moment, there appeared an enemy head through the hole : Obavva hit it with her weapon and dragged the dead body aside. In this way, she killed a large number of soldiers, till her husband and others arrived on the scene.

The most important building in the lower fort which forms the main residential area of the town, is the temple of *Uchchangi-amma*, Sanskritised into *Utsavamba*, situated just at the foot of the hill and overlooking the town. It is a huge, two-storeyed, impressive building built by the Paleyagars for *Uchchangiamma*, their patron goddess. Said to be the largest temple in the town, it has, in front of it, a tall lamp-pillar and an *Uyyale-mantapa* or swing-arch. It is said that the building originally had five storeys and that the upper three storeys were destroyed by Tipu Sultan for the sake of stones for constructing other buildings. Inside the fort there is a straight east-west road connecting this temple at one end with the *Rangayyana bagilu* on the other. Formerly, it was called *Rathada bidi* or car street. It was also called *Doddapete* or big market. This road has now been extended further.

Now, however, the main market has been shifted to a road in the heart of the town. This road, which is a part of the Bangalore-Dharwar road, also runs almost parallel to the old market road. The bus stand is in the *Santepete*, opposite the *Sante bagilu* gateway, while the railway station is situated about a mile to the west of *Santepete*. The new town and extensions have also grown mainly in the same direction as the old town, *i.e.*, north-eastern direction in relation to the fort. Almost all the government offices are situated by the sides of the above-mentioned road just between the old town and the new extensions. The travellers' bungalow is also situated on the same road, just between the market area and the office area and just at the point where the road takes a turn to the south-east. The part to the south of the office area contains the District Hospital, the First Grade College, Road Transport Corporation Depot and the Venkateshwara Extension where fine modern buildings have sprung up.

About three miles to the north-west is situated the *Murugharajendra Matha*, the residence of an eminent guru of the Lingayats. It is a large and well-built edifice, two-storeyed high, and with a lofty *mahadwara* or outer-gate called *Anebagilu* or elephant door. The chief object of worship in the *Matha* is the *gaddige* of Immadi Murugi Swami, who is described as the founder of the institution. The name of the *Matha* is said to be derived from Murugi or three 'gi's, namely, yogi, jogi and bhogi. In one part of the *Matha* there is an ingenious water wheel. The original building of this *Matha* was on the Chitradurga hill, in front of the Hidimbeshvara temple. This is also a spacious and impressive stone structure, with a very large pillared hall, built during the reign of Bharamanna Nayaka (1689-1721).

To the west, among a rugged and picturesque group of hills, is the *Ankli Matha*. The hill containing the *Matha* is noted for its long series of subterranean chambers, now regularly built round with masonry and thickly covered with plaster. Entered into by

a good stone stair-case leading down to rooms of various sizes at different levels, the chambers contain shrines, lingas, baths, and pedestals. The new addition may be 300 to 500 years old; but the caverns themselves must have been in existence since long. At the Panchalinga cave, near the entrance, there is an inscription dated 1286 A.D. of the reign of the Hoysala king Narasimha III, recording a grant by his minister Perumale.

About three miles south of Chitradurga is the Jogi-matti or maradi, one of the highest points in the district, being 3,803 feet above sea level. Being approachable by road, it is a convenient resort during the intense heat of the summer. The forest authorities have a lodge here and proposals to develop the area into a game sanctuary are under consideration.

Davangere

Davangere.—Situated about 38 miles north-west of Chitradurga, Davangere is an important city and railway station on the Poona-Bangalore line of the Southern railway. It is the headquarters of a sub-division and a city municipality. Situated in the middle of the regions growing rice and sugarcane on one side, arecanut and cocoanut on another and jowar, groundnut and cotton on the third, Davangere is one of the important centres of trade in the State. It is not only the biggest and the most populous town in the district, but also one of the major and thickly populated towns in the State. Being situated in a groundnut-and-cotton growing tract, the place has a number of groundnut-oil factories, a couple of them manufacturing vanaspati also. It has also many cotton textile mills, with a large labour population.

Since 1947, the town has developed as an educational centre also with an Engineering College, Medical College, Arts and Science College, Polytechnic, Teachers' Training College, B.Ed. College, School of Arts and Crafts and Basic Training Institute. Fine and imposing buildings to house these educational institutions have been constructed in the western part of the town. In the southern part, large-scale textile mills have sprung up. The city wears a new look with wide roads in the new extensions, public parks, attractive squares, and a large bus stand. Davangere city is spreading towards the west and south. On the western outskirts, are situated the Chigateri General Hospital and the Tuberculosis Sanatorium which are being upgraded to suit the needs of the Sri Jayadeva Murugharajendra Medical College.

Davangere was originally an obscure village, forming one of the suburbs of Betur or Bettur, often met with in the local inscriptions. Haidar Ali gave it as a jagir to a Maratha chief named Appaji Ram, who encouraged merchants to settle there. Appaji Ram died without heirs; but the place, destined to be what it is today, fortunately, continued to receive encouragement from Tipu

Sultan and the succeeding rulers. The steady increase in population, especially since the advent of the railway necessitated the extension of the city.

A valuable trade is carried on in Davangere, with the neighbouring States on the one hand and with the malnad towns of the Shimoga and Chikmagalur districts on the other, the arecanut of the latter being sent to Wallajapet and other places. Along with the goods imported from Madras, West Bengal and other eastern parts, the *Kamblis* or blankets, which form a speciality of this district are also an important article of trade with the malnad. In recent years, the trade between Davangere and places in Dharwar district has also been steadily increasing. Some idea of the importance of Davangere as a centre of trade may be formed from the fact that, according to railway records, the quantity of inward and outward traffic at Davangere compares favourably with stations such as Hubli and Bellary.

Devapura.—Please see under Charitable Endowments in Chapter XVII.

Dodderi

Dodderi (Challakere taluk) is a village four miles east of Challakere town. Founded by the progenitor of the Nidugal or Harati-Nidugal family, Dodderi was the headquarters of one of the branches of this family until one of its chiefs, on being dispossessed by the Bijapur army, shifted to Nidugal in the Tumkur district. It was here that Khasim Khan, the Moghul governor of Sira, being surprised while conveying a large treasure, by a Maratha force under Danoji Ghorpade assisted by the Paleyagar of Chitradurga appears to have committed suicide to avoid disgrace. His body was afterwards taken to Sira where it was buried. From this time Dodderi remained with the Chitradurga chiefs until it was taken by Haidar Ali. Until 1882, it had given its name to the taluk now called Challakere and was long its headquarters. It was once famous for its paper manufacture, and the size of the sheets regulated the Dodderi *gaz* or yard, which was a standard measure of length.

Hadadi

Hadadi (Davangere taluk).—Inscriptions found at the place take us as far back as the 11th century A.D. But at present, there is no monument of any architectural importance. The Hanuman temple is a structure of the Paleyagar period, renovated considerably in recent times. From the stray finds of sculptures in the fort area, it appears probable that some ancient monument lies buried in the vicinity. About two furlongs to the north of the village is pointed out the site of an ancient temple of Ittigekallu Ranganatha The *ittiges* or bricks which are said to have been used to build this temple measure $12'' \times 7'' \times 2\frac{1}{2}''$.

Haluvana (Harihar taluk) is a village about two miles to the south-east of Komaranahalli which is on the main road between Honnali and Harihar. On the tank bund in the village is an old Chalukyan temple. It is in a dilapidated condition and consists of only a *garbhagriha* and a vestibule, the front *mantapa* having fallen down completely. In the precincts of the temple stand several *virgals* or hero-stones, three of which contain inscriptions of the Chalukyan period. **Haluvana**

Hampanur (Chitradurga taluk) is a small village about two miles from Yemmehatti which is situated on the Chitradurga-Davangere road. To the east of the village is a hillock on which there is a granite temple of Ranganatha. The temple, which was probably built during the Nayaka period, consists of a *garbhagriha*, a vestibule, a *mukha mantapa* and a verandah, the last being a recent addition. The image of the god, which is in fact an image of *Janardana*, is poor in workmanship. To the north-west of this temple is a small shrine containing a relievo figure of *Hanuman*. In front of the Hanuman temple is a tall *garudagamba*, about 28 feet in height. **Hampanur**

Harati (Hiriyur taluk) is a village between Challakere and Hiriyur, about 24 miles to the south of Challakere. It was for some time the headquarters of a line of local chiefs, who later occupied Nidugal in the Tumkur district. The founder of this family, who is said to have come from the Bijapur country, got these parts by way of a grant. He is further said to have built Dodderi and Harati, naming them after the towns of his ancestors. The history of the family is dealt with in Chapter II. **Harati**

Harihar is an ancient town situated on the right bank of the Tungabhadra. It is the headquarters of the taluk bearing the same name, and it is only nine miles west of Davangere. It is a railway station and a municipality. **Harihar**

According to a legend, this spot was the capital or stronghold of a giant named *Guha* or *Guhasura*, the limits of whose territory were Uchchangi-durga in the east, Govinahal in the south, Mudunur in the west and Airani in the north. Guhasura, having by his penance, obtained from Brahma a boon of exemption from death at the hands of either Hari or Hara, became troublesome to both gods and men. On a request by the latter, *Hari* and *Hara*, in order to counteract the spell, combined themselves into one form of Harihara and destroyed him. The descent of this incarnation was at Kudlur, now Harihara, the place of confluence of the Tungabhadra and Haridra, where the 'god's footprints' are still shown. The giant while dying prayed that the place might be named after him, whence it came to be called *Guharanya Kshetra*.

There are numerous inscriptions in the great temple of Harihareshvara, most of the earlier ones being dated in the 12th century A.D. In the time of the Chalukyas, Harihar seems to have been an Agrahara possessed by 104 Brahmins and included in the province of Nolambavadi. There are inscriptions recording the benefactions made to the temple by the Hoysalas, Yadavas and the Vijayanagara kings. After the fall of Vijayanagara, the place was seized by the Tarikere chiefs, who erected the fort. From them it was taken by the Nawab of Savanur, who granted it as a jagir to one Shir Khan. The temple is said to have been intact under those Muhammadans, only the roof being used for a mosque. Harihar was subsequently sold to the chiefs of Bidanur Next came the Marathas, who held it until it was taken by Haidar Ali in 1763. After this, it was taken by the Marathas three times. Until 1865, an Indian regiment was stationed in the cantonment, two miles north-west of Harihar. In 1868 was completed a splendid bridge across the Tungabhadra, over which now runs the trunk road from Bangalore to Dharwar. It is built of stone and brick and has 14 elliptical arches of 60 feet span. There is also a separate bridge over the river for the railway.

The Harihareshvara temple is the most important one at Harihar. It is a large structure built in the Hoysala style in 1223 by Polalva, a general and minister of the Hoysala king, Narasimha II and added to later by others. The description of the temple, having a *garbhagriha*, a *sukanasi*, a *navaranga* and a *mukha-mantapa*, appears in the section on Archaeology in Chapter II. The image of Harihara, about four feet high, has its left portion representing Vishnu and the right Shiva. To the left of the temple, stands the shrine of Lakshmi, consisting of a *garbhagriha*, *a mantapa* with three entrances and a verandah running all round inside. The shrine has a fine tower built of brick and mortar. It is said that corresponding to this shrine there was a shrine of Parvati to the right of the temple.

According to one of the many old records possessed by the Shanbhogue of Harihar, Tipu broke many images of the temple, carried away its belongings and converted a portion of it into a mosque. Among the records, are also five sanads, three issued during the time of the Peshwa Balaji Rao and two by Krishnaraja Wodeyar III. Two of the stone inscriptions have at the top a figure of Harihara as in the temple, flanked by *Nandi* and *Garuda* on the right and left. The slab containing the inscription numbered 'Davangere 39' is interesting in that it is about 15 feet high and perhaps the tallest of the inscribed slabs in the State.

Harihar finds a place on the industrial map of the State also. The Mysore Kirloskar Ltd., have established a machine tools factory here on the banks of the Tungabhadra. An industrial

estate has also been recently established in the town. The details of these have been given in the Chapter on Industries.

Hatti.—Please see Nayakanhatti.

Heggere.—Please see under Charitable Endowments in Chapter XVII.

Hiriyur

Hiriyur is a town situated on the right bank of the Vedavati, at the bifurcation of the Bangalore high road leading to Bellary and Chitradurga. It is the headquarters of the Hiriyur taluk and a municipality.

Hiriyur was founded probably in the 16th century by a chief of Mayasamudra named Keshava Nayaka, the virtue of the spot being discovered, as usual by the incident of a hare turning on hounds. The family of the founder continued in possession of the place for three generations. During this time, people were encouraged to settle in the town which in course of time reached prosperous condition. It was then taken first by the Bijapur army and afterwards by the Paleyagar of Chitradurga, whose ancestor, before coming to power, had held the office of Nayaka of Hiriyur under the Vijayanagara kings. In 1762, it was captured by Haidar Ali and suffered severely during the subsequent contests of that ruler and the Marathas, whose devastations brought on a famine that swept off many of the inhabitants.

Owing to the then unhealthy condition, an attempt had been made in the early part of this century to remove the town to a higher site on the other side of the river; but the people, however, were unwilling to leave the neighbourhood of the ancient temples. One of these, dedicated to Teru-Malleshvara, has a lofty tower erected by a Chitradurga Paleyagar. East of the old town, the Vedavati is bridged for the high road.

The Teru-Malleshvara temple is a large structure built in the Dravidian style, with a *mahadwara* surmounted by a lofty *gopura.* In front of it is a high *Uyyale-Kamba* with stout iron chains hanging from the top intended for swinging the image. The open *mukhamantapa* has entrances on three sides. In front of it stands on a high pedestal a fine *dipastambha* or lamp-pillar, about 45 feet high, with a pavilion at the top enshrining a Basava or bull and 8 lamps in the form of huge iron cups, two in each direction, each capable of holding about 10 seers of oil. The lamps are lighted once a year. The pillar has slight projections which serve as steps to go to the top. Its front face has a male figure with folded hands. The ceilings of the *mukha-mantapa* are painted with scenes from

the Shaiva puranas and the front central ceiling has a chain of stone rings. In the *navaranga* are kept three sets of metallic figures, large images of Shiva and Parvati, also small images of them and Uma-Maheshwara seated on Nandi. These are taken in procession in three separate cars during the car festival which takes place in the month of Magha (January-February).

Hiriyur is said to have been the native place of Kannada poet Babbura, author of *Ambika Vijaya* and *Parashurama Ramayana*; he was a devotee of the god Ranganatha of Babburu, a village about two miles from Hiriyur. He mentions in his works the god Teru-Malleshvara. Another Kannada poet Madhava, author of a Kannada version of the *Kavyadarsha* of Dandi styles himself 'ruler of Hiriyur'; but it is not clear whether it is the same Hiriyur or not.

About ten miles south-west of Hiriyur, where the Suvarnamukhi river flows into the district from Tumkur, a fine reservoir has been built across the river, called Sri Gayathri Reservoir, to irrigate about 3,000 acres. The place has a picturesque setting surrounded by low-lying hills and verdant valleys. The channels which take off from the reservoir afford irrigation facilities in the Hiriyur taluk.

Holalkere

Holalkere is a town situated about four miles east of the Holalkere railway station on the Bangalore-Hubli line, and 20 miles south-west of Chitradurga on the Chitradurga-Shimoga road. It is the headquarters of the Holalkere taluk and a municipality.

Holalkere appears to have been an important Jaina settlement in the 10th century A.D. The present town, however, seems to have been founded in the 14th century by a Boya Ganda, under the protection of a Dhumi chief, Doddanna Nayaka. In course of time, it fell into the hands of the Paleyagars of Basavapatna. In 1475, Timmanna Nayaka, the progenitor of the Chitradurga Paleyagar family, obtained from the Vijayanagara king his first appointment as Nayaka of Holalkere. It remained in possession of the Chitradurga Paleyagar family, till taken by Haidar Ali. The town suffered, in common with the neighbouring parts, from repeated Maratha invasions.

Its situation on the high road near the foot of the pass leading to Chitradurga, and holding of a large weekly fair have combined to make it a thriving town. Its prosperity was promoted by the advent of the railway and the location of the taluk headquarters here. Prior to the opening of the branch railway line between Chikkajajur and Chitradurga, passengers used to alight at Holalkere and proceed to Chitradurga by road.

The Bail-Ganapati at this place is a huge figure, about nine feet in height, seated on a high pedestal marked with the rat emblem, on an open ground enclosed by a low compound.

Horakere-Devarapura.—Please see under Charitable Endowments in Chapter XVII.

Hosadurga

Hosadurga is a town situated at the base of a hill, 11 miles east of the Hosadurga road railway station on the Bangalore-Hubli line, and 19 miles south of Holalkere, on Huliyar-Tarikere road. This is the station for the Marikanive dam, which is 32 miles from it. Hosadurga is the headquarters of the taluk of the same name, and a municipality. Four miles to the east is a bridge called Kallodu bridge across the Vedavathi, which has opened up communication with Tumkur district.

Hosadurga appears to have been originally a mere hill-fort erected in 1676 by Chikkanna Nayaka, the Paleyagar of Chitradurga, for the purpose of covering his operations against Bagur, the chief town of that quarter, then in possession of the Muhammadans and attached to Sira. In 1708, a Jangama priest, driven out of Bagur, took refuge with the Chitradurga Paleyagar, and was commissioned by him to build a *pete* below the hill and procure settlers to reside there. Eventually, the place was taken by Haidar Ali and with the exception of a temporary occupation by the Marathas, it was ever since under Mysore.

Hosadurga is particularly known in the district for its importance in the development of cottage industries. The weaving of mercerized cotton cloth, locally known as *Vudu Reshme*, is carried on extensively. Hosadurga and its outskirts have a number of coconut plantations, the products of which are exported to distant places.

Ingladhal

Ingladhal (Chitradurga taluk) is a small village about four miles south-east of Chitradurga. Ingladhal appears to have been a centre of mining and metallurgy in the past also. Near the village is a group of hills which contain a number of sulphur mines, one of which is as deep as 200 yards. It is believed that gold, silver and copper were worked out here in ancient times, as can be seen from the ash-mounds and slag in close association with groups of megaliths called *Mauryara manes* or *Pandavaguttis*. In fact, the place derives its name from this industry, *ingala* meaning ember, referring to red-hot metal.

Blue sulphate of copper and carbonate-malachite are found here as encrustations in reefs in the altered traps. (Please see also Chapters V and IX).

Jagalur

Jagalur is a town situated 28 miles north-west of Chitradurga, with which it is connected by a road from Vijapura. It is the

headquarters of the Jagalur taluk and a municipality. The taluk headquarters were shifted to this place from Kankuppa in 1868. It is said that the place takes its name from a Rishi known as Jogappa. There is a shrine dedicated to him. The image of the Rishi is a standing figure, about 3 feet high, holding a trident in the right hand and a *Kamandalu* in the left. There is a Lingayat Matha, having a *gaddige* of Totada Swami, said to have been one of the Swamis of the Murugharajendra Matha.

Jatinga Rameshwara

Jatinga Rameshwara (Molakalmuru taluk)—This is a hill, about 3,469 feet above sea level, about three miles north-west of Brahmagiri. Being one of the places where edicts of Ashoka have been found, the place is of great archæological interest. (For details about the place and the edicts, see sections on Legend and Tradition and Archaeology in Chapter II). The hill consists of a long ridge, having towards the western end an ancient temple of Rameshvara built in 962 A.D. (See also page 408).

Kabbur

Kabbur (Davangere taluk) is a village about four miles north-east of Mayakonda. The place appears to have been a prominent *agrahara* town during the 12th century A.D. A ruined fort wall of rubble and mud surrounds the place. The old Kalleshvara temple is a plain building having a *garbhagriha*, an open vestibule and a *navaranga*. To the north-west of the village, there is a mound with a broken *Nandi* on it. The mound is surmised to be the site of an ancient temple of Avimukteshvara mentioned in the inscription found nearby.

Kodaganur

Kodaganur (Davangere taluk) is a place of antiquity, as is clear from the inscription found here, which is dated 976 A.D. There were several ancient temples here; but most of them are now in ruins. It was an *agrahara* town and is called the southern Ayyavole in the inscription. The ancient temple of Kalleshvara in the village has been entirely rebuilt in the modern period, only the four square pillars in the *navaranga* now speaking of its antiquity. The Vishnu temple mentioned in a local inscription, belonging to the 12th century A.D., is no longer in existence. There is, however, a mutilated image of Vishnu on the *Ashvattha-katte* in front of the village. The Hanumanteshvara temple is a modern structure with a 17th century relievo figure of Hanuman in a striking attitude. In a field nearby is a small mound, on which there is a soap-stone image of seated Durga. The image, which is worn out, wears a *kirita*, with 'flames' darting forth from behind her head. In the four hands are held a sword, trident, *damaruga* and cup. It is possible that this is the image of the goddess mentioned as '*Banada-shankari*' of Kodaganur in an inscription found at Doddamagadi. Though the inscription is dated 1518 A.D., the image appears to belong to the Hoysala period. About three furlongs to the north-east of the village, is situated a dilapidated temple of Malkandevaru. Its outer

walls and parapet are all covered over by a mound of earth, so that only the interior is visible from the front. The temple probably belongs to the 12th century A.D. and may be the Someshvara temple mentioned in a local inscription of 1101 A.D.

Kogganur (Davangere taluk) is a village about 8 miles south-east of Davangere. To the north-north-east of the village are two temples, one of Hanuman and the other of Ishvara. The Ishvara temple is an ancient structure, belonging to about the 11th century. It was originally of *trikutachala* type; but now the eastern and the northen cells have been blocked up. The outside of the temple is covered by a mound of earth. The *garbhagriha* contains a *linga* and the *navaranga* a Nandi. In the vestibule are placed the image of *Saptamatrikas, Mahishasuramardini, Vishnu, Naga, Surya* and *Virabhadra.* The lintel over the vestibule doorway has a figure of *Gajalakshmi.* **Kogganur**

Lokikere (Davangere taluk)—The village of Lokikere is an ancient *agrahara* town of the later Chalukya period. There are several temples, *virgals* and *mastigals* which speak of the antiquity of the place. The Kodi Kaleshvara temple, standing to the west of the ancient tank, is the oldest structure in the village. Originally, it had three cells with their open vestibules leading to a common *navaranga*. The outside walls have now been covered by a mound. The sculptures belonging to this temple have been kept in the Surya shrine facing the main cell. In an inscription dated 1229 A.D. found on the south-west pillar, the *linga* of the temple is called *Mulasthanada Kalludeva.* The most important temple in the village is that of Keteshvara. Built of soap-stone, it appears to belong to the 12th or 13th century A.D. The outside walls of this temple also are covered up by an earthen mound. Near the southern corner of the west wall of this temple there is a niche, about one foot square, which has been closed up by a stone. It is locally believed that in it are preserved the records belonging to the temple. To the south of the village, stands the temple of Narayana. It is in a dilapidated condition and has now only a *garbhagriha* and a closed vestibule. The three feeet high image of *Narayana* is generally good, though mutilated. It is probably of the same age as the Keteshvara temple. Other, rather less important, temples in the village are those of Mailaradeva and Virabhadra belonging to the Hoysala period and Hanuman belonging to the Paleyagar period. **Lokikere**

Malalkere or Manalkere (Davangere taluk)—This is another ancient *agrahara* town, with an Ishvara temple of about 1701 A.D., according to a local inscription, which refers to the god as Mulasthaneshvara. This temple is of the *trikutachala* type, with three cells whose open vestibules lead to a common *navaranga*. Here also, as in the case of many other old temples in the district, the outside walls are covered by a mound of earth. The cell **Malalkere**

facing east enshrines a *linga,* that facing south, *Janardana,* and that facing west, *Surya-Narayana.* In the *navaranga* is kept an image of *Mahishasuramardini* and by its side, a seated image of a devotee. In the village are found a number of pot-stone *virgals* and *mastigals.* It is reported that *varahas* and gold *hanas* were occasionally found in the locality.

Malladihalli

Malladihalli (Holalkere taluk) is a moderate-sized village. which has earned fame during the last two decades mainly owing to the activities of an Anatha Sêvashrama conducted by a *yogi* named Sri Raghavendra Swamiji (Particulars of this Sevashrama have been given in Chapter XVIII).

Marikanive

Marikanive (Hiriyur taluk) is a pass in the eastern line of the Chitradurga hills, through which the Vedavati issues to the open country of Hiriyur. The village Marikanive is situated at a distance of about 32 miles from the Hosadurga Road railway station on the Bangalore-Poona line. Near this village is a large artificial lake called the Vanivilas Sagar which has been constructed by putting up a dam across the river. The length of the dam is 1,330 feet and its height is 162 feet. The lake has a capacity of holding 30,000 million cubic feet of water and its catchment area is 2,075 square miles. The water-spread of the lake is 31 square miles in extent. Two channels have been excavated to a length of 29 and 30 miles and they have under them nearly 24,500 acres of land. There is a furnished travellers' bungalow close to the dam. The dam, which is considered a great feat of engineering skill, was commenced in August 1898 and completed in August 1907. There are two fine *mantapas* in the Saracenic style built at the two ends of the dam. Close to the reservoir is situated a shrine of *Mari* known as *Kanive Maramma,* from whom the village derives its name. The shrine, which was a wooden structure, was some years back built of dressed stones. Marikanive is also known as Vanivilaspura.

Mathodu

Mathodu (Hosadurga taluk) is a village situated 10 miles to the east of Hosadurga town, near the right bank of the Vedavati. It is a place of historical interest and was the seat of a line of Paleyagars, whose founder was one Giriyappa Nayaka. The details in this regard have been given in the Chapter on History. The place was once famous for the manufacture of glass bangles. These were of five colours—black, green, red, blue and yellow. The furnaces were constructed on high terrace, built against the inside of a fort wall. All the raw materials necessary are found in the neighbourhood.

Mayakonda

Mayakonda (Davangere taluk) is the headquarters of a hobli in the Davangere taluk and a railway station on the Bangalore-Poona line. There are two temples in the village, one of which is called the Keshava temple and the other the Obala-Narasimha

temple. The Keshava temple, which is situated in the heart of the village, is a recent structure of mud and country tiles. The features of the image of the deity suggest that the workmanship is of the Vijayanagara period. To the right side of the image is a *linga* which appears to have been recently installed. The other temple situated to the south-east of the village is a dilapidated structure. It consists of a *garbhagriha* with a roughly shaped boulder which is called *Udbhava-Narasimha*. The *navaranga* has four Dravidian square-shaped pillars which have on their cubical mouldings high relief figures of various gods such as Ganesha, Hanuman and figures of Purushamriga, dancers, Mohini with mirror, Kalinga, etc.

Molakalmuru

Molakalmuru is a town situated about 38 miles south of Bellary. It is the headquarters of Molakalmuru taluk and a municipality. The place is entirely surrounded by barren stony hills, among which, just above the town to the north, is a large reservoir, constructed by a Hatti chief in the name of his mother. Near to it a good echo is obtained from a huge rock called the *Kuguva Bande* or shouting rock, and to the east of it is a boulder on which is inscribed a *yamaka* verse in praise of *Kalidasa*. This curious *yamaka* verse is engraved across the legs of an elephant drawn on the rock near this tank. The verse is registered as inscription No. 39 in Molakalmuru taluk, Chitradurga district.

To the north-west of the *yamaka* boulder is the Nunke-Bhairava hill, on which, in a remarkable enclosed valley or ravine, with no visible outlet at either end, is an ancient temple of that name, served by a succession of *Gosayins* from Northern India. From an inscription it appears that the proper name of the god is Lunkeshvara and that the temple was set up in the 10th century by a Kadamba prince. The Kadambas also had a fort here called the *Lunkeya-kote*. This fort referred to in the Kadamba records was immediately to the north of Molakalmuru.

During the period of Vijayanagara rulers, the region belonged to the chief of Rayadurga, seven miles to the east. After the fall of the Vijayanagara kingdom, the Rayadurga Paleyagar, Bomma Nayaka, gave up Molakalmuru to Mallappa Nayaka of Hatti in exchange for some white cattle of which the latter owned a rare and valuable breed. Mallappa Nayaka, finding water on the hill, fortified it and lived there. But in the time of his son, the place was taken by the Paleyagar of Chitradurga, with whose family it remained till captured by Haidar Ali and annexed to Mysore.

The weaving of pure silk cloth is a particular feature of Molakalmuru and the silk fabrics manufactured here have a good market in the district and other parts of the State. The weaving industry in the place has a wide reputation and a considerable percentage of the population of the town is engaged in it. There is a Silk

Weavers' Co-operative Society which helps the weavers financially.

Molakalmuru is a place of tourist interest and visitors have a variety of sight-seeing places in the taluk.

Nanditavare

Nanditavare (Harihar taluk) is a village 8 miles from Harihar. The Ishvara temple here is worthy of note. It is a small, neat structure built in the Hoysala style. The god is named *Amrita-lingamanikeshvara* in an inscription dated 1220. The temple appears to have been built at about that period. The *garbhagriha* and *sukanasi* are intact, but the *navaranga* has been restored with mud walls. The central ceiling has delicately carved figures of *ashtadikpalakas*. Opposite the temple is a large *Nandi* enclosed in a shrine. The outer walls of the *garbhagriha* and *sukanasi* have sculptures on them. A row of large figures, now mostly mutilated, runs round the temple. Above this row is a fine cornice with bead work. Below the row runs a delicately executed frieze of foliage, and between this and another similar frieze come finely carved figures of lions attacking elephants, etc., similar to the figures in the top parapet of the Harihareshvara temple at Harihar. Around the *garbhagriha* are three fine niches with turrets and female chauri-bearers at the sides. The northern niche has a broken figure of Durga, the other two being empty.

In this temple is kept an ornamental wooden frame named *Elechattu* mounted on small wheels and decorated with five knobs at the top. It is about 3½ feet by 2 feet, with ornamental borders and rows of small cavities all over the front surface. It is said that those who grow the betel-vine, in order to guard the leaves against diseases and insect-pests, vow to the god of the temple that they would worship the frame and give doles of rice, etc. to the priest, and that in fulfilment of the vow they insert numbers of betel leaves in each cavity of the frame, tying at the same time large quantities of leaves to the knobs at the top, and move the frame sideways on the wheels. The number of leaves required for this purpose is about 2,000. After the worship is over, the leaves are distributed among the villagers. The worship of the frame takes place almost every year.

Nayakanhatti

Nayakanhatti (Challakere taluk).—Formerly called Hatti, the place is situated about 14 miles north-west of Challakere. It is a place of some historical interest and was the headquarters of a local Nayaka family. The history of the family has been dealt with in the Chapter on History. The place contains a celebrated tomb and a temple dedicated to a great saint of the Lingayats, named Tippe Rudrayya, who is said to have lived about 250 years ago and wrought miracles. He is also said to have become the spiritual preceptor of the Hatti Paleyagars. The large sums of money bestowed upon him by the faithful were devoted to the

enlargement and repair of tanks, and for other works of public benefit, which endeared him to the people. An annual festival is held in honour of the saint, which attracts a large number of people. The place has a big tank, perhaps one of the biggest in the district, with a fine broad bund said to have been built by the saint.

Nirgunda

Nirgunda (Hosadurga taluk).—Now an ordinary village 7 miles west of Hosadurga, Nirgunda is interesting as being the site of one of the most ancient cities in the region of which there is an authentic record. It was the capital of a Jaina principality of the same name included in the Ganga empire 1,500 years ago. According to tradition, it was founded in 160 B.C. by a king from the north named Nilashekhara, son of Raja Parameshvara Raya, who gave it the name of Nilavatipatna.

Shankaranahalli

Shankaranahalli (Davangere taluk).—Situated about two miles to the south-west of Mayakonda, the village has, on a height, a temple of Ranganathaswami locally called *Tiruvengalanatha*. The structure is exactly like that of the Obala-Narasimhaswami temple at Mayakonda. It has a similar square *garbhagriha* with a stepped pyramidal tower, an open vestibule and a *navaranga* with two doorways. The pillars, too, are like those at Mayakonda, with similar cubical mouldings and plantain-bud hangings. In the *garbhagriha* stands a small relievo figure, about a foot high, whose features are hard to distinguish, since the image is much covered over with muck.

Siddapura

Siddapura (Molakalmuru taluk).—The Jain basti here is a neat little building at the foot of the Brahmagiri hill, in which there is a Jaina image. To the south-west of the *basti* is a hill known as Pagadesalubetta. Tradition has it that the two sisters (*akka-tangi*) who built the Ishwara temple known as *Akkatangi-yara gudi* used to play dice (*pagade*) on this hill. There is a *virgal* lying in a field to the south-west of this hill which contains the inscription 'Molakalmuru 12', which is interesting as the sculptures on it illustrate the meaning of the expression *siditale-godu* (to offer the springing head). The reference is to a custom frequently alluded to in inscriptions, according to which a devoted servant took a vow that he would not survive his patron and sacrificed himself on the occurrence of the patron's death. This was done in several ways. But in the present instance, a bowed elastic rod was set up behind the person with its end attached to the top-knot of his hair, so that the head, when cut off, sprang up with the rebound of the rod. A few furlongs to the east of Siddapura is a small hamlet inhabited by a few Kurubas, which is named Kadusidda *Matha*. The adjacent village, which is called Haneya in the inscription,

may have derived its later name Siddapura from the above hamlet. The Ashoka inscription at the hill called *Emmetammanagundu* near Siddapura and that on the rock known as *Aksharabande* to the north of Brahmagiri have been carefully conserved under the orders of Government (for details of these inscriptions please see the section on Archæology in the Chapter on History).

The *Jatinga Rameshvara, Bhogeshvara, Surya* and *Virabhadra* temples here contain inscriptions. The first-named temple is an old structure as a reference to its renovation is made in an inscription dated 962 A.D. Originally a brick temple, it was converted into a stone temple in that year. The inscription also tells us that it was here that *Jatayu* was killed by *Ravana.* There is also a temple dedicated to *Jatayu* on an adjacent peak. At the beginning of the flight of steps leading to the top of the Jatinga Rameshvara hill, is a ruined temple dedicated to the *Ganesha*. The peculiarity of the image of this *Ganesha* is that it has only two hands.

On Brahmagiri are the *Trishankeshvara* temple and the *Mahal.* An inscription at the temple tells us that one Bichana, the minister of Bamma, who was the son of Bhoganripa, built the Haneya (*i.e.*, Siddapura) and the Nidugal forts. The *Mahal* is a neatly built two-storeyed house, about 50 feet by 50 feet, the lower portion being built of stone and the upper storey terraced. It was built by a Lingayat *guru* some 100 years ago. This *guru* is said to have led a pure and pious life and to have spent large sums of money in feeding people, especially on the *Shivaratri* day.

Sirigere

Sirigere (Chitradurga taluk) is a village and the headquarters of the hobli of the same name, situated about 15 miles west-north-west of Chitradurga. The place is famous for the Veerashaiva *Matha* of *Taralabalu Sampradaya,* originally said to have belonged to Ujjayini. The *Matha,* which is known for its liberal outlook, is doing good social work. It runs a high school and a number of hostels, called Taralabalu Jagadguru Hostels, which are known for their secular outlook, throughout the State. It has adherents throughout the distict and outside, who assemble in large numbers at Sirigere at the time of annual festival of the *Matha* which is held on the *Vyasapournima* day, also called *Taralabalu Hunnime* in the month of *Magha.*

Srirampura

Srirampura (Hosadurga taluk).—This place, formerly called Budihal, is 16 miles south-east of Hosadurga town. The fort here was built in the 15th century by a chief who was invested with authority by the king of Vijayanagara. After the fall of the Vijayanagara empire, this place was held by the Tarikere chiefs, the Sultans of Bijapur, the Mughals, the Paleyagar of Chitradurga, the Marathas and Haidar Ali. It was one of the places at which

the insurgents under the Tarikere Paleyagar created disturbances in 1831.

Turuvanur

Turuvanur (Chitradurga taluk).—This is a town situated 11 miles north-east of Chitradurga town. The people are largely engaged in the weaving of blankets and cotton cloths. The blankets manufactured here are popularly known as Chitradurga blankets and are sold throughout the State. The municipality was formed in 1899 and was upgraded into a Town Municipality as per the Town Municipalities Act, 1951.

Vanivilaspura (Hiriyur taluk).—Please see under 'Marikanive'.

APPENDIX

SOME PRINCIPAL TABLES

TABLE I

Area and Population by Taluks—Chitradurga District

Sl No.	Taluk		Area: Commissioner for Land Records, Survey and Settlement		Area: Survey of India		Population 1961			Population 1951
			Square Miles	Square Kilometres	Square Miles	Square Kilometres	Rural	Urban	Total	
1	Challakere	..	798.2	2,067.4	803.36	2,080.69	139,064	13,185	152,249	124,990
2	Chitradurga	..	527.7	1,366.7	535.41	1,386.70	133,183	38,042	171,225	138,354
3	Davangere	..	365.1	945.6	366.74	949.85	106,500	81,335	187,835	146 151
4	Harihar	..	185.5	480.5	191.28	495.41	59,480	22,829	82,309	63,485
5	Hiriyur	..	660.9	1,711.7	654.86	1,696.07	119,929	11,455	131,384	96,845
6	Holalkere	..	423.8	1,097.6	400.94	1,038.43	108,038	5,976	114,014	91,964
7	Hosadurga	..	557.1	1,442.9	582.54	1 508.77	104,282	6.712	110,994	87,328
8	Jagalur	..	371.4	961.9	373.56	967.51	77,024	5,772	82,796	70,237
9	Molakalmuru	..	281.2	728.3	285.92	740.53	56 625	4,853	61,478	49,016
	Total	..	4,170.9	10,802.6	4,194.61	10,863.96	904,125	190,159	1 094.284	868,370

TABLE 2

Area and Population of towns in Chitradurga district in 1961

Sl. No.	Town	Area: Square miles	Area: Square Kilometres	Population per Square mile	Number of occupied residential houses	Population: Persons	Population: Males	Population: Females
1	Chitradurga ..	2.50	6.47	13,334	5,328	33,336	18,125	15,211
2	Challakere ..	0.40	1.40	26,020	1,595	10,408	5,512	4,896
3	Nayakanhatti ..	0.01	0.03	277,700	487	2,777	1,426	1,351
4	Turuvanur ..	1.00	2.59	4,706	803	4,706	2,452	2,254
5	Davangere ..	7.50	19.42	10,417	13,900	78,124	41,606	36,518
6	Mayakonda ..	0.08	0.21	40,138	578	3,211	1,651	1,560
7	Harihar ..	2.70	6.99	8,455	3,637	22,829	12,111	10,718
8	Hiriyur ..	2.02	5.23	5,671	2,316	11,455	5,998	5,457
9	Holalkere ..	0.20	0.52	29,880	1,013	5,976	3,162	2,814
10	Hosadurga ..	1.90	4.92	3,533	1,114	6,712	3,572	3,140
11	Jagalur ..	1.80	4.66	3,207	1,005	5,772	2,989	2,783
12	Molakalmuru ..	0.20	0.52	24,265	851	4,853	2,530	2,323
	Total ..	20.31	52.65	9,367 (average)	32,627	190,159	101,134	89,025

TABLE 3

Variation in Population in Chitradurga district during sixty years from 1901 to 1961

Sl. No.	Year		Males	Females	Total	Decade variation	Percentage decade variation
1	1901	..	259,663	250,962	510,625	..	..
2	1911	..	286,726	277,148	563,874	+53,249	+10.43
3	1921	..	295,366	279,586	574,952	+11,078	+1.96
4	1931	..	337,294	320,158	657,452	+82,500	+14.35
5	1941	..	374,601	351,680	726,281	+68,829	+10.4
6	1951	..	447,047	421,323	868,370	+142,089	+19.56
7	1961	.	563,988	530,296	1,094,284	+225,914	+26.02

TABLE 4

Variation in Population of Towns in Chitradurga district during sixty years from 1901 to 1961

Sl. No.	Town	Population						
		1901	1911	1921	1931	1941	1951	1961
1	Davangere ..	10,402	10,074	16,971	23,155	31,759	56,018	78,124
2	Chitradurga ..	5.792	6,986	8,520	10,732	14,523	25,081	33,336
3	Harihar ..	5,783	5,408	5,904	6,884	8,422	15,920	22,829
4	Hiriyur ..	2,313	2,533	2,616	2,748	3,417	4,883	11,455
5	Challakere ..	2,000	2,505	2,529	3,846	4,257	6,746	10,408
6	Hosadurga ..	2,263	2,176	2,594	3,512	3,922	4,937	6,712
7	Holalkere ..	3,418	3,746	3,184	3,243	4,146	4,891	5,976
8	Jagalur ..	3,307	3,632	2,668	3,707	2,888	4,626	5,772
9	Molakalmuru ..	2,915	3,054	3,359	3,331	3,746	4,135	4,853
10	Turuvanur ..	5,035	5,698	6,436	6,589	6,662	3,749*	4,706*
11	Mayakonda ..	1,894	2,426	2,081	2,391	2,702	2,835	3,211
12	Nayakanhatti ..	2,858	2,610	2.704	2,902	1,772	2,140	2,777

* Excluding the population of the Turuvanur village.

TABLE 5

Literacy by Taluks in Chitradurga District

Sl. No.	Taluk		Literates in 1951			Percentage of literates in 1951	Literates in 1961			Percentage of literates in 1961
			Males	Females	Total		Males	Females	Total	
1	Challakere	..	15,264	2,819	18,083	14.5	22,643	5,788	28,431	18.67
2	Chitradurga	..	28,034	8,988	37,022	26.8	38,644	14,604	53,248	31.10
3	Davangere	..	30,068	10,113	40,181	27.5	43,994	17,743	61,737	32.87
4	Harihar	..	11,438	2,702	14,140	22.3	19,086	6,418	25,504	30.99
5	Hiriyur	..	14,400	2,861	17,261	17.8	22,425	6,293	28,718	21.86
6	Holalkere	..	14,799	3,081	17,880	19.4	21,964	6,390	28,354	24.87
7	Hosadurga	..	11,493	1,905	13,398	15.3	16,940	3,971	20,911	18.84
8	Jagalur	..	11,202	2,275	13,477	19.2	13,606	3,574	17,180	20.75
9	Molakalmuru	..	5,968	1,158	7 126	14.5	8,489	2,006	10,495	17.07
	Total	..	142,666	35,902	178,568	20.6 (average)	207,791	66,787	274,578	25.09 (average)

TABLE 6

Literacy in Towns in Chitradurga District

Sl. No.	Town	Literates in 1951 Males	Females	Total	Percentage of literates in 1951	Literates in 1961 Males	Females	Total	Percentage of literates in 1961
1	Chitradurga ..	8,403	4,037	12,440	49.6	11,452	6,252	17,704	53.11
2	Challakere ..	2,003	744	2,747	40.7	2,805	1,368	4,173	40.09
3	Nayakanhatti ..	407	144	551	25.8	677	314	991	35.69
4	Turuvanur ..	837	321	1,158	30.9	1,213	546	1,759	37.38
5	Davangere ..	15,436	6,687	22,123	39.5	23,351	11,263	34,614	44.31
6	Mayakonda ..	683	235	918	32.4	711	317	1,028	32.02
7	Harihar ..	4,098	1'625	5,723	36.0	6,984	3,282	10,266	44.97
8	Hiriyur ..	1,410	568	1,978	40.5	2,953	1,484	4,437	38.73
9	Holalkere ..	1,421	644	2,065	42.2	1,652	949	2,601	43.52
10	Hosadurga ..	1,296	389	1,685	34.1	2,112	968	3,080	45.89
11	Jagalur ..	1,413	577	1,990	43.0	1,805	968	2 773	48.04
12	Molakalmuru ..	1,243	464	1,707	41.3	1,445	671	2,116	43.60
	Total ..	38,650	16,435	55,085	40.5 (average)	57,160	28,382	85,542	44.98 (average)

TABLE 7

Occupational Classification of Persons at Work (Other than Cultivation) in Chitradurga District in 1961

Sl. No.	Occupations	Males	Females	Total
1.	Engineers, Architects and Surveyors	297	..	297
2.	Physicians, Surgeons and Dentists	334	14	348
3.	Nurses, Pharmacists and other Medical and Health Technicians	327	138	465
4.	Teachers	4,019	369	4,388
5.	Jurists	143	..	143
6.	Administrators and Executive Officials (Government)	1,372	23	1,395
7.	Writers, Artists and related workers	362	47	409
8.	Clerical Workers, Stenographers, Typists, Book-keepers and Cashiers	3,225	33	3,258
9.	Unskilled Office Workers (including Attendants, etc.)	1,666	150	1,816
10.	Working Proprietors—Wholesale and retail trade	9,110	3,072	12,182
11.	Working Proprietors— Directors and Managers (Construction, manufacturing, recreation, entertainment, catering services, etc.)	1,955	124	2,079
12.	Salesmen, Shop Assistants and related workers	2,992	782	3,774
13.	Farm-workers (Animals, Birds and Insect-rearing), Gardeners, Tappers, etc.	7,776	1,182	8,958
14.	Electricians and related workers	572	1	573
15.	Miners, Quarrymen and related workers	836	257	1,093
16.	Workers in Transport and Communications (including Railway and Road Transport, Posts and Telegraphs, etc.)	2,205	3	2,208

TABLE 7—(contd.)

Sl. No.	Occupations	Males	Females	Total
17.	Spinners, Weavers, Dyers and related workers	7,987	8,597	16,494
18.	Tailors, Cutters and related workers	3,216	697	3,913
19.	Shoe-makers, Shoe-repairers, Leather-cutters and related workers	2,055	51	2,106
20.	Blacksmiths and related workers	1,671	117	1,788
21.	Jewellers, Goldsmiths, Watch-makers and related workers	1,727	139	1,866
22.	Tool-makers, Welders, Machinists and related workers	2,171	22	2,193
23.	Carpenters, Cabinet-makers and related workers	2,496	18	2,514
24.	Brick-layers, Plasterers, Stone-cutters and other construction workers	5,521	2,034	7,555
25.	Potters, Kilnmen, Ceramic workers, etc.	1,843	963	2,806
26.	Millers, Bakers, Oil-seed pressers, Pounders and related food and beverage workers ..	1,814	280	2,094
27.	Tobacco-preparers and products-makers	729	421	1,150
28.	Craftsmen and Production Process Workers (Basket-Weavers, Tanners, Packers, etc.) ..	1,670	2,848	4,518
29.	Policemen, Guards, Watchmen and related workers	1,216	7	1,223
30.	House-keepers, Cooks, Maids, Waiters and related workers	2,704	526	3,230
31.	Sweepers, Cleaners and Watermen	903	168	1,071
32.	Barbers, Hairdressers and related workers	1,376	..	1,376
33.	Washermen, Laundrymen, Dhobies, etc.	1,744	1,087	2,831
34.	Labourers not elsewhere classified	12,172	9,132	21,304
35.	Workers not classifiable by occupation	176	33	209

Source : Census of India, 1961, Vol. XI, Mysore, Part II-B(ii), General Economic Tables.

TABLE 8

A. Livestock Population in Chitradurga District—Cattle and Buffaloes (as ascertained by the Census of 1961)

Sl. No.	Name of Taluk	Cattle Males	Cattle Females	Cattle Total	Buffaloes Males	Buffaloes Females	Buffaloes Total
1	Jagalur	25,758	20,623	46,381	2,650	13,625	16,275
2	Davangere	31,428	32,344	63,772	3,897	24,360	28,257
3	Hosadurga	36,189	27,560	63,749	4,822	22,735	27,557
4	Holalkere	34,875	28,026	62,901	5,565	27,683	33,248
5	Harihar	13,708	9,284	22,992	1,276	13,865	15,141
6	Hiriyur	35,747	26,966	62,713	6,197	16,769	22,966
7	Challakere	47,613	34,399	82,012	7,959	17,931	25,890
8	Chitradurga	44,593	35,471	80,064	5,666	25,613	31,279
9	Molakalmuru	19,153	14,247	33,400	3,485	8,457	11,942
	Total ..	289,064	228,920	517,984	41,517	171,038	212,555

Livestock Population—(*continued*)

B. Number of Other Livestock in Chitradurga District as ascertained by the Census of 1961

Sl. No.	Name of Taluk	Total Bovine			Sheep				
		Males	Females	Total	Upto one year	Over one year			Total Sheep
						Males	Females	Total	
1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10
1	Jagalur	28,408	34,248	62,656	6,298	4,402	19,558	23,960	30,258
2	Davangere	35,325	56,704	92,029	3,160	1,525	7,831	9,356	12,516
3	Hosadurga	41,011	50,295	91,306	13,795	6,570	38,720	45,290	59,085
4	Holalkere	40,440	55,709	96,149	6,801	3,470	18,758	22,228	29,029
5	Harihar	14,984	23,149	38,133	3,801	1,208	9,736	10,944	14,745
6	Hiriyur	41,944	43,735	85,679	18,642	14,394	69,453	83,847	102,489
7	Challakere	55,572	52,330	107,902	30,023	11,570	84,459	96,029	126,052
8	Chitradurga	50,259	61,084	111,343	8,121	3,951	21,820	25,771	33,892
9	Molakalmuru	22,638	22,704	45,342	6,967	4,425	20,688	25,113	32,080
	Total ..	330,581	399,958	730,539	97,608	51,515	291,023	342,538	440,146

Livestock Population—(*continued*)

Sl. No.	Name of Taluk	Goats: Upto one year	Goats: Over one year: Males	Goats: Over one year: Females	Goats: Over one year: Total	Total goats	Horses and Ponies: Over three years: Males	Horses and Ponies: Over three years: Females	Horses and Ponies: Over three years: Total	Horses and Ponies: Upto one year: Males	Horses and Ponies: Upto one year: Females	Horses and Ponies: Upto one year: Total
		11	12	13	14	15	16	17	18	19	20	21
1	Jagalur ..	4,015	2,128	7,038	10,066	14,081	17	47	64	4	16	20
2	Davangere ..	3,489	2,018	7,388	9,406	12,895	117	46	163	7	11	18
3	Hosadurga ..	6,131	2,998	13,223	16,221	22,352	8	27	35	4	5	9
4	Holalkere ..	4,501	3,087	10,009	13,096	17,597	48	23	71	93	77	170
5	Harihar ..	2,395	1,211	5,428	6,639	9,034	7	15	22	12	21	33
6	Hiriyur ..	5,623	5,655	17,401	23,056	28,679	62	86	148	21	25	46
7	Challakere ..	8,450	5,183	18,578	23,761	32,211	107	108	215	12	27	39
8	Chitradurga ..	6,317	3,758	13,377	17,135	23,452	84	106	190	32	40	72
9	Molakalmuru ..	4,445	2,300	12,639	14,939	19,384	25	37	62	[illegible]	8	11
	Total ..	45,366	28,338	105,981	134,319	179,685	475	495	970	188	23[illegible]	418

Livestock Population—(*continued*)

Sl. No.	Name of Taluk	Horses and Ponies: One to three years: Males	Females	Total	Total three years & under: Males	Females	Total	Total Horses and Ponies: Males	Females	Total	Mules	Donkeys
		22	23	24	25	26	27	28	29	30	31	32
1	Jagalur ..	3	7	10	7	23	30	24	70	94	..	171
2	Davangere ..	4	[illegible]	11	11	18	29	128	64	192	..	309
3	Hosadurga ..	6	15	21	10	20	30	18	47	65	..	347
4	Holalkere ..	24	91	115	117	168	285	165	191	356	1	138
5	Harihar ..	28	18	46	40	39	79	47	54	101	..	13
6	Hiriyur ..	29	25	54	50	50	100	112	136	248	9	785
7	Challakere ..	26	29	55	38	56	94	145	164	309	2	814
8	Chitradurga ..	10	5	15	42	45	87	126	151	277	..	594
9	Molakalmuru ..	4	1	5	7	9	16	32	46	78	2	336
	Total ..	134	198	332	322	428	750	797	923	1,720	14	3,507

Livestock Population—(*concluded*)

C. Number of Poultry in Chitradurga District as ascertained by the Census of 1961

Sl. No.	Name of Taluk	Fowls				Total Fowls		Ducks				Others	Total Poultry
		Hens	Cocks	Chicken	Total	Desi	Improved	Ducks	Drakes	Ducklings	Total		
1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	11	12	13	14
1	Jagalur ..	9,514	3,947	10,597	24,058	23,684	374	..	..	..	..	..	24,058
2	Davangere ..	16,300	6,134	25,444	47,878	46,553	1.325	23	29	24	76	48	48,002
3	Hosadurga ..	9,237	3,106	15,559	27,902	27,610	292	4	4	..	8	11	27,921
4	Holalkere ..	10,862	3,160	20,260	34,282	34,117	165	37	40	20	97	..	34,379
5	Harihar ..	5,599	1,898	6,845	14,342	13,548	794	18	26	10	54	..	14,396
6	Hiriyur ..	15,202	5.774	22,008	42,984	42,727	257	35	84	..	119	..	43,103
7	Challakere ..	14,237	5,544	21,731	41,512	41,512	..	20	43	48	111	..	41,623
8	Chitradurga ..	15,932	6,227	24,735	46,894	46,642	252	4	20	6	30	8	46,932
9	Molakalmuru	4,946	1,647	5,855	12,448	11,295	1,153	3	2	..	5	..	12,453
	Total ..	101,829	37,437	153,034	292,300	287,688	4,612	144	248	108	500	67	292,867

TABLE 9

Particulars of Inspection Bungalows, Travellers' Bungalows, etc., in Chitradurga District in-charge of Public Works Department

Sl. No.	*Place*	*Type of Bungalow*	*Class*	*No. of Suites*
		CHITRADURGA DIVISION		
1.	Chitradurga	Circuit House	..	One Suite
2.	Chitradurga	Inspection Bungalow	Class I	Three Suites
3.	Chitradurga	Travellers' Bungalow	Class I	Three Suites
4.	Harihar	Inspection Bungalow	Class II	Two Suites
5.	Harihar	Travellers' Bungalow	Class II	Two Suites
6.	Challakere	Inspection Bungalow	Class I	Two Suites
7.	Challakere	Travellers' Bungalow	Class I	Two Suites
8.	Hanagal (Molakalmuru Taluk)	Travellers' Bungalow	Class II	Two Suites
9.	Vanivilaspura	Travellers' Bungalow	Class II	Two Suites
		DAVANGERE DIVISION		
10.	Davangere	Inspection Bungalow	Class I	Four Suites
11.	Davangere	Travellers' Bungalow	Class I	Five Suites
12.	Harihar	Inspection Bungalow	Class II	Two Suites
13.	Jagalur	Inspection Bungalow	Class II	Two Suites

Metric Weights and Measures

Length—

10	millimetres = 1 centimetre
100	centimetres = 1 metre.
1,000	metres = 1 kilometre
1,852	metres = 1 nautical mile (international).

Area—

100	square millimetres = 1 square centimetre.
10,000	square centimetres = 1 square metre or centiare.
100	square metres = 1 are.
100	ares = 1 hectare.
100	hectares or 1,000,000 square metres = 1 square kilometre.

Volume—

1,000,000	cubic centimetres = 1 cubic metre.

Capacity—

1,000	millilitres = 1 litre.
1,000	litres = 1 kilolitre.

Weights—

1,000	milligrams = 1 gram.
1,000	grams = 1 kilogram.
100	kilograms = 1 quintal.
1,000	kilograms = 1 tonne.
200	milligrams = 1 carat.

Conversion Factors

Length—

1 inch = 2.54 centimetres

1 foot = 30.48 centimetres

1 yard = 91.44 centimetres

1 mile = 1.61 kilometres

1 nautical mile (UK) = 1853.18 metres

1 nautical mile (international) = 1852 metres

Volume—

1 cubic foot = 0.028 cubic metre

Area—

1 square foot = 0.093 square metre.

1 square yard = 0.836 square metre.

1 square mile = 2.59 square kilometres.

1 acre = 0.405 hectare

Capacity—

1 gallon (Imperial) = 4.55 litres

1 seer (80 tolas) = 0.937 litre

1 Madras measure = 1.77 litres

Temperature—

T° Fahrenheit = 9/5 (T° centigrade) + 32

Monetary Conversion Table

Annas	*Pies*	*Paise*	*Annas*	*Pies*	*Paise*
0	3	2	8	3	52
0	6	3	8	6	53
0	9	5	8	9	55
1	0	6	9	0	56
1	3	8	9	3	58
1	6	9	9	6	59
1	9	11	9	9	61
2	0	12	10	0	62
2	3	14	10	3	64
2	6	16	10	6	66
2	9	17	10	9	67
3	0	19	11	0	69
3	3	20	11	3	70
3	6	22	11	6	72
3	9	23	11	9	73
4	0	25	12	0	75
4	3	27	12	3	77
4	6	28	12	6	78
4	9	30	12	9	80
5	0	31	13	0	81
5	3	33	13	3	83
5	6	34	13	6	84
5	9	36	13	9	86
6	0	37	14	0	87
6	3	39	14	3	89
6	6	41	14	6	91
6	9	42	14	9	92
7	0	44	15	0	94
7	3	45	15	3	95
7	6	47	15	6	97
7	9	48	15	9	98
8	0	50	16	0	100

Metric Weights and their nearest equivalents in F.P.S. System and in the District of Chitradurga

Sl. No.	*Weights in Metric System (1 kg. = 1,000 gms.)*		*Equivalents in F.P.S. System*		*Equivalents in the District of Chitradurga*		
	kg	g.	Lbs.	Oz.	Md .	Srs.	Tolas
1	50	..	110	3 5/8	4	18	15
2	20	..	44	1 1/2	1	31	11
3	10	..	22	3/4		35	17¼
4	5	..	11	3/8	0	17	20 3/4
5	2	..	4	6 ½	0	7	3½
6	1	..	2	3 ¼	0	3	13 3/4
7		500	1	1 3/5	0	1	19
8		200	0	7	0	0	17
9		100	0	3 1/2	0	0	8 1/2
10		50	0	1 3/4	0	0	4 1/3
11		20	0	7/10	0	0	1 3/4
12		10	0	7/20	0	0	17/20
13		5	0	7/40	0	0	2/5
14		2	0	7/100	0	0	1/6
15		1	0	7/200	0	0	1/12

Measures which were in use in Chitradurga District and their equivalents

		Seer	*Pav*	*Chatak*	*Seer*	*Millilitre*
2 litres	..	1	2	⅛	1	1254
1 litre	..	0	3	1/4	1/2	625
500 ml	..	0	11⅛	1/8	1/4	312
200 ml	..	0	½	½	1/8	156
100 ml	..	0	0	1¼	1/16	78
50 ml	..	0	0	5/8	1/32	40
20 ml	..	0	0	1/4	1/64	20

Denominations of litre measures in use

20 litres	1 litre	50 ml
10 litres	500 ml	20 ml
5 litres	200 ml	
2 litres	100 ml	

Cylindrical type Aluminium, Brass and Stainless Steel pouring and dipping measures for liquids only.

G. I. Conical measures for kerosene and motor oils only.

1 Gallon = 4.55 litres

1 litre = 1,000 millilitres

Weights in existence in Chitradurga district prior to the introduction of Metric Weights and their equivalents

Tolas	Grams	Tolas	Grams
1-1/2	18	13-1/2	158
3	35	15	175
4-1/2	53	16-1/2	193
6	70	18	210
7-1/2	88	19-1/2	228
9	105	21	245
10-1/2	123	22-1/2	263
12	140	24	280

Seers	Tolas	Kilograms	Grams	Seers	Tolas	Kilograms	Grams
1	24	..	280	21	504	5.88	5,880
2	48	..	560	22	528	6.16	6,160
3	72	..	840	23	552	6.44	6,440
4	96	1.12	1,120	24	576	6.72	6,720
5	120	1.40	1,400	25	600	7.00	7,000
6	144	1.68	1,680	26	624	7.28	7,280
7	168	1.96	1,960	27	648	7.56	7,560
8	192	2.24	2,240	28	672	7.84	7,840
9	216	2.52	2,520	29	696	8.12	8,120
10	240	2.80	2,800	30	720	8.40	8,400
11	264	3.08	3,080	31	744	8.68	8,680
12	288	3.36	3,360	32	768	8.96	8,960
13	312	3.64	3,640	33	792	9.24	9,240
14	336	3.92	3,920	34	816	9.52	9,520
15	360	4.20	4,200	35	840	9.80	9,800
16	384	4.48	4,480	36	864	10.08	10,080
17	408	4.76	4,760	37	888	10.36	10,360
18	432	5.04	5,040	38	912	10.64	10,640
19	456	5.32	5,320	39	936	10.92	10,920
20	480	5.60	5,600	40	960	11.20	11,200

Maunds	Seers	Tolas	Kilograms	Grams
1	40	960	11.2	11,200
2	80	1,920	22.4	22,400
3	120	2,880	33.6	33,600
4	160	3,840	44.8	44,800
5	200	4,800	56.0	56,000
6	240	5,760	67.2	67,200
7	280	6,720	78.4	78,400
8	320	7,680	89.6	89,600
9	360	8,640	100.8	1,00,800
10	400	9,600	112.0	1,12,000

Source : Office of the Controller of Weights and Measures, Bangalore.

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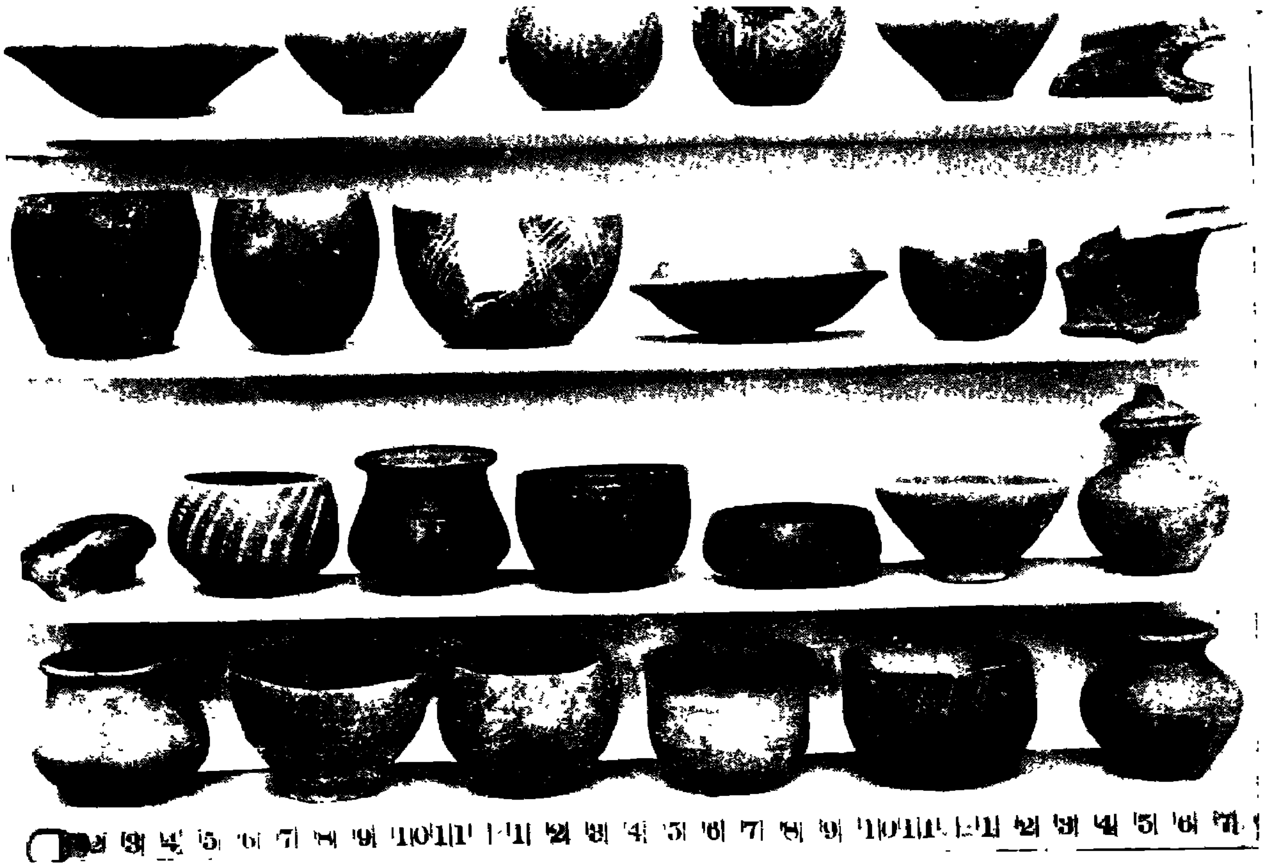
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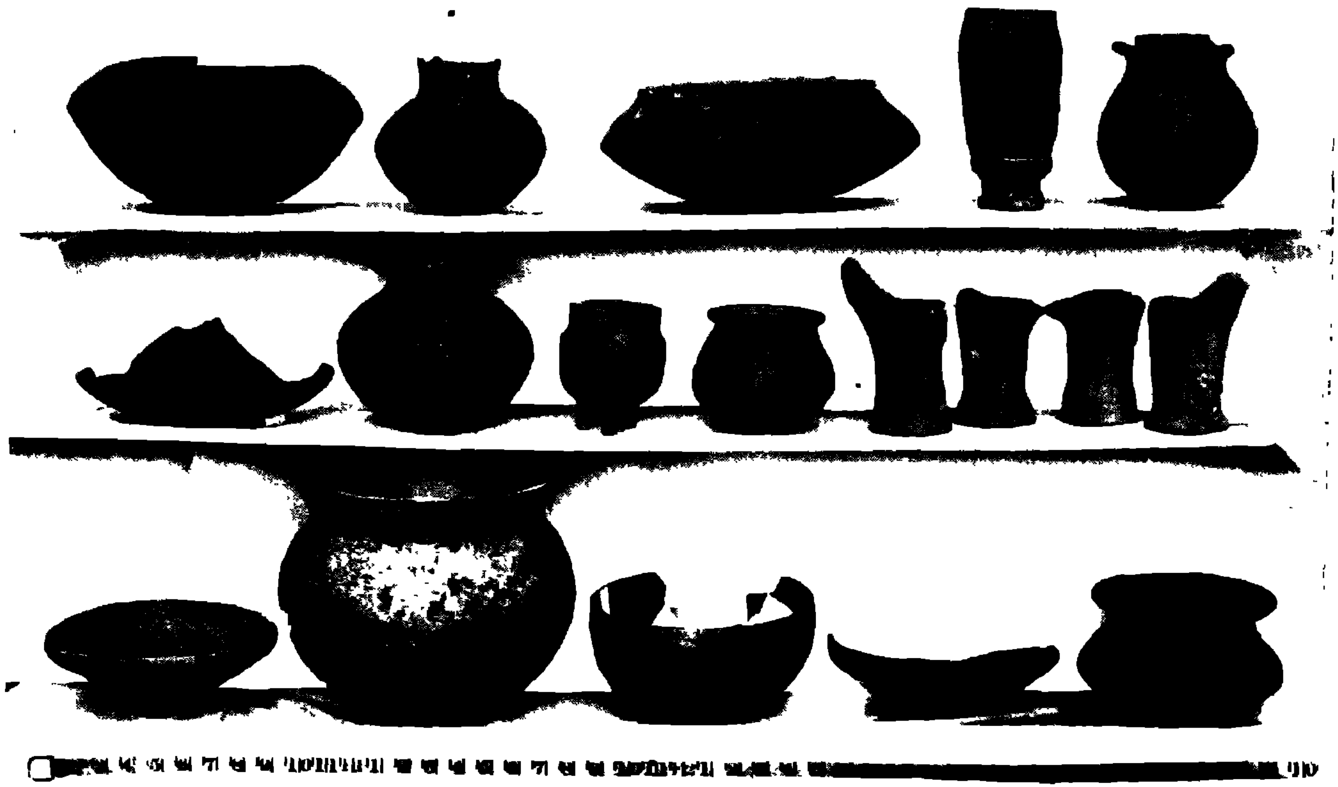
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Pottery excavated at Chandravalli near Chitradurga town.

(See pages 67—69)



Another set of pottery excavated at Chandravalli near Chitradurga town.

(*See pages 67—69*)



A view of the Harihareshwara temple at Harihar, built by Polalva, a Hoysala general, in 1224 A.D.

(See pages 79—80 and 397—398)



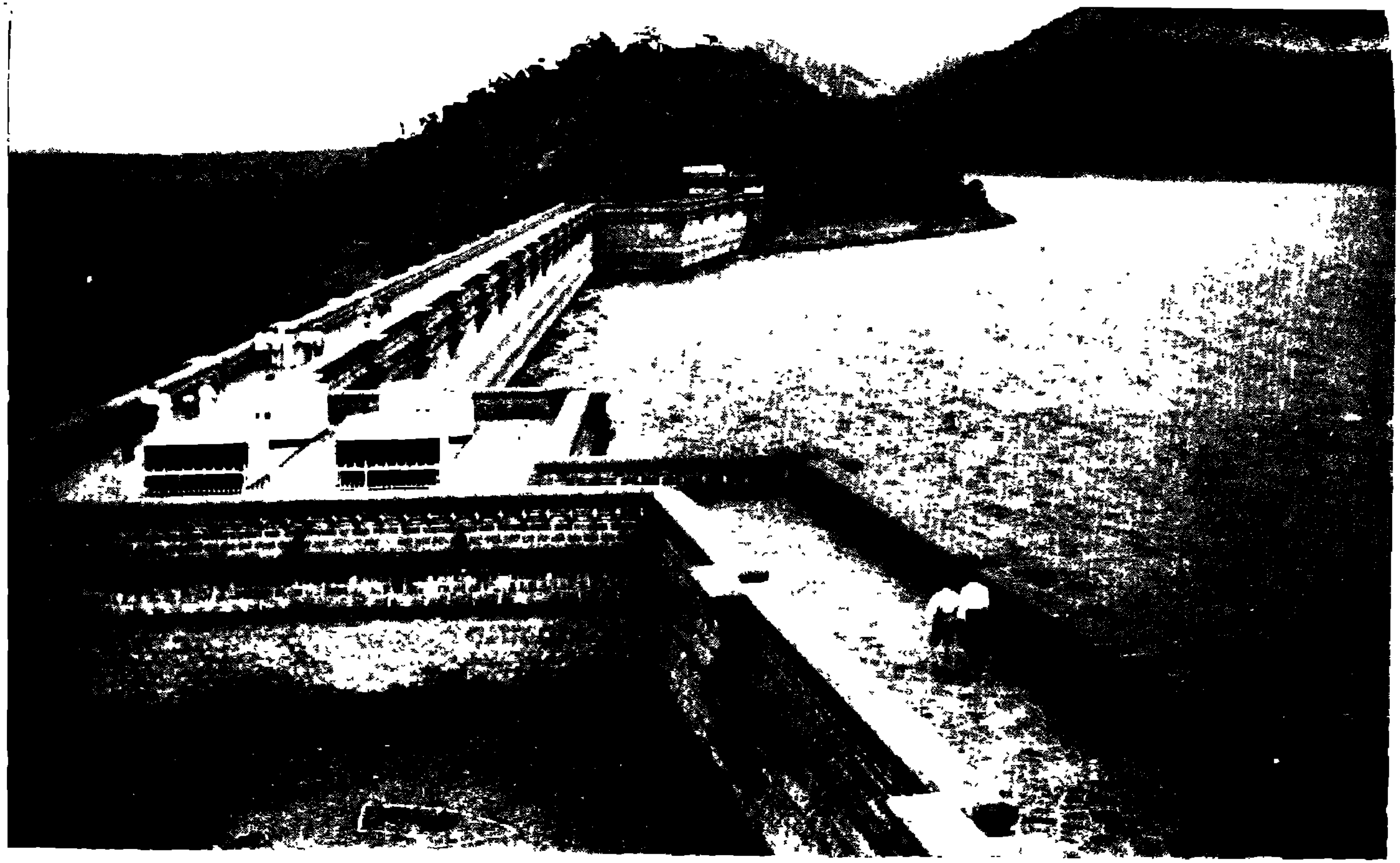
A general view of the Chitradurga hill and the fort-wall, with the Chandravalli excavation fields in the foreground

(See pages 75—77 and 391—394)



A sectional view of the Fort at Chitradurga.

(See pages 75—77 and 391–394)



Vanivilas Sagar reservoir, Vanivilasapura (Marikanive), constructed in 1907.

(*See pages 120—121 and 404*)

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71	39 (Marginal heading)	Chromlechs	Cromlechs
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113	31	hadloom	handloom
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182	Sl. No. 10 in Table	1093–64	1963–64
201	23 (Table)	Sillicon	Silicon
211	7	Chikkabaladakere	Chikkabyaladakere
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295	6	Magistrates	Magistrate
296	Heading of Col. No. 8	stupefyiny	stupefying
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310	21	were	was
318	3	day. is	day, is
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381	Second line of second marginal heading	Jagadgurus	Jagadguru
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403	10	northen	northern
403	30	feeet	feet

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